

P R E F A C E .

ITALY is distinguished as being the country of the ancient Romans, those wonderful and warlike people, who, in the first four centuries of the Christian era, ruled over the greater part of Europe and a large portion of the eastern world. The ancient history of Italy, therefore, is that of the Roman empire, and is totally distinct from that of the modern Italian states, which forms the subject of the present volume.

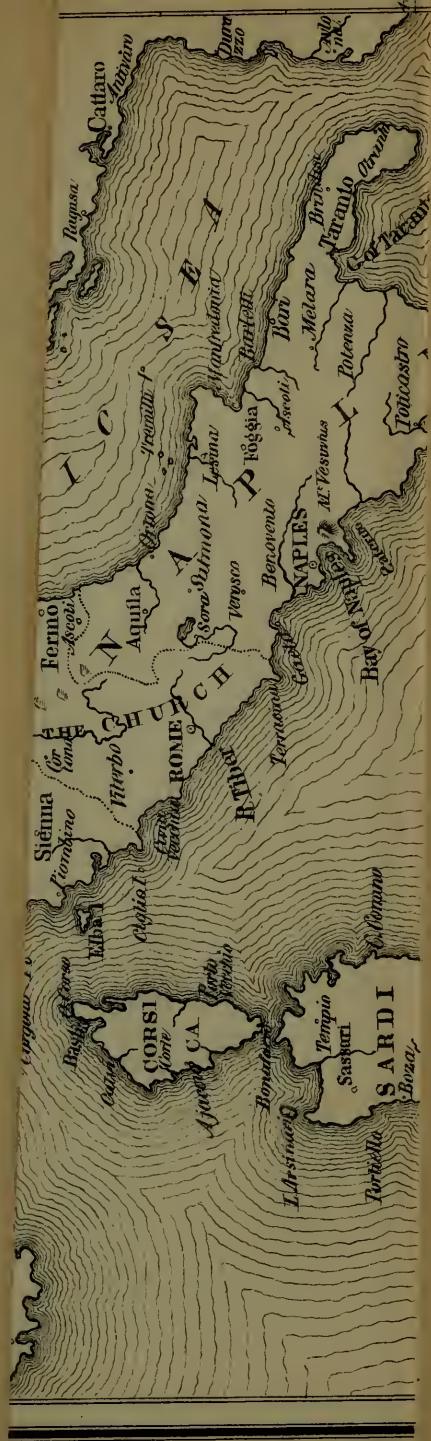
A brief outline, however, of the origin, progress, and fall of the Romans, will serve to introduce a sketch of the ordinary habits of a people whose manners and customs possess more interest for us than those of any other ancient nation, since they once lived and ruled in our own land; therefore, a few pages have been devoted to the subject.

Modern Italy has never constituted a single monarchy, but has always contained a great many separate states, each with a constitution and history of its own. During the middle ages, the Italians were the most civilised, the

most wealthy, and the most powerful of any people of Europe. When other nations were not many degrees removed from barbarism, they were enlightened and refined; and were famed for those polite arts, which in other European countries were utterly unknown; their cities were magnificent, and adorned with elegant structures, while the greatest towns of France, England, and Germany could boast little else than wooden buildings, thatched with straw.

No part of Europe, however, has experienced so many revolutions as Italy; nor does the history of any other country afford such an infinite variety of historical events; but it is no longer either rich or powerful; its commerce and manufactures are of little importance as compared with those of former times; and all the arts and sciences for which its people were once so eminently distinguished, have long been declining, while in other countries they have been cultivated to the highest degree of perfection.

From these and other causes, that will be noticed in the course of this history, Italy is not at present of much consideration in a political point of view; yet there is no country, perhaps, in the whole world, that affords so many and such varied objects of interest to the traveller, whether his taste may lead him to prefer the works of art, or those of nature.



HISTORY OF ITALY.

THE

ANCIENT ROMANS.

THE origin of the Romans is so obscure, that the time of the foundation of their famous city of Rome, and the name of its founder, are alike unknown; for the accounts which we have of the history of Rome, previous to the time of the Roman Republic, are so mixed up with fable, as to be entirely unworthy of credit.

It is recorded in our school histories, on the authority of the Roman historians, that Romulus was the founder of Rome; that he it was who instituted the first senate, and divided his people into two classes, the patrician and the plebeian, or nobles and commons; and that he also appointed two distributors of justice, called Duumviri; and instituted other laws and regulations, by which, it is said, he kept the barbarians over whom he ruled, in subjection. It is also stated, that six kings reigned in succession after Romulus, some of them noted for their acts of tyranny, others for the excellence of their political institutions; but all the accounts that



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have been handed down to us of these seven kings of Rome, are extremely doubtful, and certainly most profusely intermixed with, if not entirely composed of fables, invented by the poets of after times, whose romantic legends have been put forth as facts, and unfortunately accepted as real history.

It is most probable that Rome was, at first, a small village, built by a few shepherds and herdsmen, who existed partly by the produce of their flocks and herds, and partly by plunder; and whose scanty numbers being gradually increased by various adventurers from other places, they in the course of time elected a ruler or king, and established a regular form of government; so that, no doubt, there were kings of Rome in its earliest days, although they could not have been of much importance in the estimation of other states; nor is it very likely that any authentic history should have been preserved of their names or actions; therefore all the early part of the ancient Roman history has been, for good reasons, called in question by modern authors, and is now generally considered as being almost wholly fabulous.

At an early period, Italy was inhabited by many different nations, the chief of whom were the Etruscans, a rich, powerful, and enlightened people, who occupied that part of the country which now forms the grand duchy of Tuscany, and who were celebrated for their learning, and knowledge of the fine arts, for which they were most probably indebted to the Greeks, with whom they carried on a commercial intercourse. Etruria contained twelve large cities, which were leagued together for their mutual support, although each had its separate government, and formed a distinct republic. Each of the smaller cities was dependent on one or other of the principal

ones, and ruled by its magistrates, who were chosen annually by the people.

As the Romans became more powerful by making conquests in the neighbouring territories, they enlarged their city, and adopted a republican form of government, in imitation of the Etruscans; but they were not so enlightened and refined a people as the latter, being, at that period of their history, a nation of rough soldiers, ignorant of all arts save that of war.

The monarchy had lasted between two and three centuries, during which the Romans had considerably increased their dominions by the conquest of some small neighbouring states, one of which was Latium, the country of the Latins, a half civilised people, who afterwards seem to have constituted the plebian class, or common people of Rome. The nobles were called patricians, and were, for the most part, descended from the early Romans; but it seems probable that the Latins were the more enlightened people of the two, since their language became the language of Rome.

The republic of the Romans lasted about five hundred years, during which period, a long series of wars made them masters of Italy, Greece, Egypt, and northern Africa, Eastern Asia as far as the Euphrates, Spain, Gaul, and the islands of the Mediterranean. They were at first governed by two consuls, chosen annually from among the patricians; and from time to time, other magistrates were elected, as occasion required, to support the rights of the commons against the nobles, who were but too apt to oppress them.

The first great conquest made by the Romans was that of Carthage, a great mercantile colony, settled by the Phœnicians on the coast of Africa. The Cartha-

ginians were the chief traders of Europe, and had the sole command of the Mediterranean sea, not permitting any vessels to come there but such as they pleased; and they sent their merchant ships as far as the British islands. They had given offence to the Romans by taking possession of Sicily and Sardinia, and the wars that followed on this account are celebrated in ancient history under the name of the Punic wars. At the beginning of these wars, Carthage was as powerful a republic as Rome, and for about one hundred years it seemed doubtful which nation would gain the ascendancy; but, at last, the Carthaginians were conquered, and their splendid capital, which equalled either of the finest cities of Greece, was laid in ashes. The fall of Carthage enabled the Romans to take possession of the whole African coast, and also of the greater part of Spain, which had belonged to the Carthaginians.

About the same period, the Romans attacked and destroyed the Greek city of Corinth, from whence they brought, among other spoils, a great number of Grecian statues, vases, and pictures, to embellish their own capital; and although the Romans had not yet made much progress in civilisation, still there were many among them who had taste enough to admire these beautiful works of art, and some were found also with sufficient genius to imitate them.

The subsequent conquests of Greece, Egypt, and many provinces of Asia, made a wonderful revolution in the manners of the Romans, who saw how much more luxuriously the people of those countries lived than themselves, and brought from their towns, books, pictures, splendid dresses, and elegant furniture; and they also learned a better style of architecture, and began to

erect finer buildings. The learning of the Greeks excited their emulation, and schools were instituted for young people of both sexes, which were held in booths round the forum or market-place.

Nor were these the only advantages gained by the Romans in their wars; for they brought from various countries many kinds of fruit-trees and flowers, which till then had been unknown to them; and the abodes of the rich were adorned with ornamental gardens and orchards. Cherry-trees were transplanted from Pontus, quinces from Candia, damascenes or damsons from Damascus, peaches and roses from Persia, lemons from Media, and figs from Egypt; all of which flourished beneath the sunny skies of Italy, and were introduced by the Romans into Spain, Gaul, and Britain. Thus we may see that war is not always without its advantages, although it would be much more pleasing, to read of these advantages being obtained by friendly intercourse.

In the later ages of the Republic, agricultural labour was usually performed by slaves, most of whom probably were captives taken in the wars. The domestic servants were slaves also, but they were commonly kidnapped, like the negroes in modern times, and bought and sold in the markets; a practice that was quite common at that period, in most countries, and more particularly in the east, where every large town had a regular slave market. Every Roman citizen was a landholder, and the term citizen did not apply merely to those who inhabited the city of Rome, but to the people of every city in the Roman territories, who were admitted to the rights of citizenship; for the Romans fought for the purpose of extending their dominion over the world, and

forming the countries they conquered into one vast republic; therefore, it was their policy to treat as friends and fellow-citizens the nations they subjugated, to introduce among them their own laws, and to teach them all kinds of useful arts; which was assuredly a better plan than to burn down the towns wherever they came, and kill or make slaves of all the inhabitants.

The Romans did not divide all the lands they obtained by conquest among the soldiers, as was usual with the gothic nations; but the government assigned a portion to every one who was admitted to the rights of a Roman citizen, and the remainder belonged to the state. The lands of the state were let out to farmers, who paid a tenth of the produce as rent, or were kept as pastures for feeding sheep and cattle, any one being allowed to use them, on payment of an annual tax to the government. The money obtained from these sources served to pay the soldiers; but whenever estates were required for new citizens, they were taken from these government lands, and this division of land among the citizens was made by what is called the Agrarian law.

Rome continued to be a republic till the time of Julius Cæsar, who, in consequence of civil wars and insurrections, was invested with supreme authority for life, and his successor, Augustus, took the title of emperor. The Roman empire had by this time, reached the highest point of grandeur. Rome was the most magnificent city in the world, and every Roman citizen of the superior class lived in a style of princely splendor.

The whole country of Italy, in the time of the emperors, was well cultivated, and produced abundance of corn and grain of all kinds; fruit, honey, oil, wine, cattle, sheep, and poultry. In the capital, and other cities,

several manufactures were carried on, such as those of tapestry, woollen cloth, and steel goods, and many improvements were made in architecture, by the use of various sorts of marble that were found among the Alps and Apennines, which caused the emperor Augustus to say, that he found Rome a city of brick, but he would leave it a city of marble. The higher ranks of Roman citizens were probably, at this time, the most wealthy people in the world, being enriched by tribute from all those countries of Europe, Asia, and Africa, that were subject to them. A great part of the city and its environs was occupied by superb palaces and spacious gardens, so that the houses of the middle classes were built very high for want of room, and let out in floors to separate families, the rent of a single floor in Rome being equal to that of a moderate-sized house and garden in any other city of Italy.

After Augustus Cæsar had conquered Egypt, the Romans, having established a considerable trade with China, Persia, and India, were more abundantly supplied with the rich manufactures and produce of those countries, and then they indulged in the most sumptuous and extravagant mode of living. They spent enormous sums of money in dress, furniture, jewels, and works of art, and the tables of the great were furnished with every luxury that money could procure, no price being thought too high for a scarce dish. The dinner of the Romans was a slight repast taken about noon; but the supper was a splendid banquet to which numerous guests were invited, who reclined on couches at table, and were entertained with music, songs, and dances, performed by slaves. Pleasure was the chief pursuit of the people of

Rome, in the time of their emperors; and this, in the end, led to the downfall of their empire.

The Christian era commenced in the reign of Augustus Cæsar, but the Romans were not generally converted from paganism till the time of Constantine the Great. They worshipped heathen deities, and in all the countries they conquered, they erected magnificent temples for the performance of their religious ceremonies. Christianity was first introduced into Italy in the reign of Nero, but the early Christians were cruelly persecuted by different emperors, till Constantine the Great became a convert to the new faith; after which, its progress was so rapid, that every trace of the ancient form of worship soon disappeared.

It was in the time of the first emperors that Britain was subjugated by the Romans, who had added to their empire Egypt, the whole of the northern portion of Africa, now known by the name of the states of Barbary, Greece, Spain, parts of Germany and Gaul, and a portion of Asia. Most of the Roman emperors conducted their armies in person to the wars, and there were also many great generals, who were usually appointed governors of the provinces they conquered, and adopted, in foreign countries, the same style of living to which they had been accustomed at Rome. The barbarian natives soon learned to admire and imitate the refined manners of their conquerors, who improved and beautified their cities with elegant buildings, aqueducts, baths, and gardens, similar to those in the towns of Italy, and governed them according to the Roman laws.

In the course of time, however, the power of the Roman empire began to decline, from various causes; and the people lost that warlike character which had distin-

guished them in the days of the republic. Some of the emperors were tyrants, and all assumed an absolute power that gave a check to the free spirit of the people. The city of Rome lost much of its grandeur in the time of Constantine the Great, who, being desirous of removing his court towards the east, built a new city, which, from him, was named Constantinople, and became the capital of the Roman empire. Most of the noble and wealthy families, of course, followed the emperor, and the magnificence of Rome was thus transferred to Constantinople.

About sixty years after the foundation of the new Roman capital, the emperor Theodosius, having two sons, Arcadius and Honorius, left the empire between them, or rather, he divided it into two empires, that of the West, and that of the East; Rome being the capital of the former, and Constantinople of the latter, which in time, came to be called the Greek empire.

It was at this period, that the warlike Goths and Vandals, who had already gained some possessions in the south of Germany, invaded both Greece and Italy. Alaric, king of the Goths, laid siege to Rome, and obliged the inhabitants to purchase the preservation of their lives, and their city, by the payment of a large ransom, consisting of five thousand pounds weight of gold, thirty thousand of silver, four thousand silk garments, three thousand pounds of pepper, and three thousand fleeces, either of purple, scarlet, or crimson; from which it is inferred, that the Romans had a method of dying their sheepskins with the wool on them. Rome was soon afterwards again assaulted and plundered, and partly destroyed, by Alaric, who complained that the Roman emperor did not observe the terms of the treaty

he had made with him, and therefore took that method of revenging himself.

The invasion of the Goths was followed by that of the Huns, a still more formidable people, who came from the northern regions of Asia, headed by the famous Attila, who carried on his wars in a more destructive manner than the king of the Goths, spreading misery and desolation wherever he came. The most remarkable circumstance connected with the invasion of the Huns is, that it caused the foundation of the powerful state of Venice and its beautiful city. The kingdom of Venetia was one of those ancient states in Italy, which existed before the foundation of Rome. The Veneti were a brave people, and had maintained their liberty and their possessions at a time when the nations around them were subdued by the Etruscans; but they were at length obliged to submit to the Romans, and had been living for ages under the Roman government, when Attila with his host of barbarians, appeared in their fertile plains. The terrified inhabitants fled in all directions, leaving their property at the mercy of the invaders, who set the towns on fire, and pursued the fugitives, many of whom were killed, and others captured for slaves, while those who were fortunate enough to escape, took refuge on a cluster of small muddy islands at the northern extremity of the Adriatic sea, where nobles and plebians, reduced to the same common lot of poverty, built a few poor huts, and managed to subsist by fishing, and making salt, which they carried in boats to the neighbouring continent, and up the rivers into the interior of the country, where they received corn, and other necessary articles, in exchange, as they could grow nothing on their own islands, there being only just room sufficient for their huts.

Such was the humble origin of the powerful republic of Venice, which, in process of time, we shall find surpassing in wealth and splendour the greatest states of Europe; a pre-eminence that was entirely owing to commercial industry.

While the Goths and Huns were ravaging Greece and Italy, Genseric, king of the Vandals, signalised himself by his maritime exploits, conquered Sardinia, Corsica, and part of Sicily, and established a kingdom in Africa. In the year 455, this warlike chief appeared at the mouth of the Tiber, with a numerous fleet of galleys filled with Moors and Vandals, and marching towards the gates of the capital, was met by the pope or bishop of Rome at the head of a procession of priests, who entreated the barbarian monarch to spare the lives of the citizens, and not to burn the city. Genseric promised to grant this petition; but although he restrained his soldiers from using fire or sword, he allowed them a whole fortnight to plunder the town, nor did he forbid them from making captives, to sell for slaves among the Moors. Most of the fine works of art which had adorned the Roman capital, were carried away into Africa, with thousands of the wretched inhabitants, the greater proportion of whom were women and children.

During these troubles, the Romans had lost all the distant provinces that had constituted the empire of the west. They had voluntarily abandoned Britain, and had been dispossessed of Gaul, Spain, and their German territory, by the Goths, so that nothing remained of the western empire, but Italy, which was now in a very miserable condition.

At last, about twenty years after the invasion of Genseric, the last Roman emperor of the west, Romulus

Augustus was dethroned by Odoacer, the chief of another German tribe, called the Heruli, who came from the borders of the Black Sea, and having gained possession of Rome and Ravenna, obliged the emperor to retire to a villa in Campania, a part of which is now called Naples, where he was allowed to live unmolested, and a pension granted for his support. Odoacer then took the title of king of Italy; and, with this event, may commence the modern history of the country.

I T A L Y,

AFTER THE FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE.

476 TO 533.

THE king of the Heruli having fixed his residence at Ravenna, a town which had almost equalled Rome in magnificence, and which he now made his capital, distributed a portion of the conquered lands among his soldiers, who, together with the land, received also the people employed in cultivating it, whom they looked upon as their slaves; but as these poor people had been in no better condition under their former masters, the change of government made little difference to them.

Odoacer and his people had not been in possession of their conquest many years, when another nation came to dispute it with them, and finally succeeded in expelling them from the country. These were the Ostrogoths, a

people who inhabited that part of Germany which is now occupied by the states of Austria, then called Noricum and Pannonia.

The Ostrogoths are considered in the light of barbarians, and were certainly, for the most part, rude and ignorant warriors; but their king, Theodoric, was one of the most enlightened princes of the age, for he had been educated at the court of Constantinople, where he had been sent in early youth, as a hostage for the fulfilment of a treaty between his father and the Greek emperor.

Odoacer being defeated and killed, Theodoric became king of Italy, where he reigned with great glory for thirty-five years, during which period the Italians enjoyed more happiness and prosperity than they had known for many years. All the cities were left in possession of their own laws, religion, and municipal government; they continued to choose their own magistrates, and their property was preserved untouched; and far from destroying what remained of the works of art, with which the Romans had adorned every part of Italy, the king established a fund for the repairs of public buildings and gave great encouragement to men of taste and talent.

According to the custom of the Gothic nations, he repaid the services of his soldiers with grants of land, and slaves to till it; but this was rather a benefit than otherwise, as large tracts that had become useless by neglect, or had been desolated by the wars, were placed under cultivation, and the harvests were in a few years so abundant that a quarter of wheat was sold for what would be five shillings and sixpence of our money, good wine for three farthings a gallon, and meat equally

cheap. Then, in order to promote trade, Theodoric appointed annual fairs in various parts of the country, and foreign merchants again visited the shores of Italy.

It was at this period that a great number of Jews, attracted by the prospect of a flourishing commerce, settled in most of the principal towns, which afforded them a more secure and peaceful asylum than they could find elsewhere, as the enlightened gothic monarch would not suffer any persons within his dominions to be persecuted on account of religion, every one being free to follow that form of worship of which his conscience approved.

The reign of this great prince seems to have been a golden age for the Italians, who also continued to enjoy a considerable share of prosperity under his successors, until the emperor Justinian, who ruled the eastern or Greek empire, sent his armies into Italy under the command of Belisarius, the most renowned general of the age, to expel the Goths from the empire of the west.

Again the country was desolated by warfare, and the people were reduced to want and misery. Belisarius gained many great victories, and took possession of Rome; but was recalled, in the midst of the war, to take the command of an expedition against Persia, and his place was supplied by Narses, another great general, who completed the conquest which the former had begun.

The last Gothic king was slain in battle; Italy was once more under the dominion of the Roman or Greek emperors, and Narses was appointed governor, with the title of Exarch, and fixed his residence at Ravenna, which had been the capital of the Gothic monarchs. The Goths received permission either to remain in Italy as

subjects of the Greek empire, or to leave the country, in which case they were allowed to take with them all their moveable property; and many of them went to Spain, where the Visigoths had founded a powerful monarchy, after the expulsion of the Romans.

Narses ruled in Italy about fifteen years, during which he exercised all the authority of a sovereign prince, and gave much discontent to the people by his tyranny and enormous exactions; therefore, it is probable they were not very sorry when a new revolution took place, by which the greater part of the country was wrested from the Greeks, and formed into the kingdom of Lombardy. The Lombards were a brave people, who, in former ages, dwelt in the northern part of Germany; but after the fall of the Roman empire, they, like other barbarians of the north, left their ancient settlements in the hope of obtaining richer and more fertile lands, and established a large monarchy in that part of Germany which is now Austria.

The Lombards, or Langobards, derived their name from a custom of suffering their beards to grow to an immense length. In their habits, manners, and dress, they resembled the Saxons, being very fond of drinking and feasting, and wearing loose garments, of white linen, striped or bordered with various colours. At the time of their invasion of Italy, they were governed by a chief, named Alboin, one of the greatest princes of his time, both as a warrior and a legislator. He crossed the Alps with a powerful army, conquered, one by one, all the cities and provinces in the north of Italy, and founded the new kingdom of Lombardy, which afterwards comprised a considerable part of the middle and southern provinces.

The success of Alboin, was, perhaps, owing to the neglect of the exarch, who, in revenge for some affront he had received at the court of Constantinople, rather encouraged than opposed the invaders. Alboin chose for the seat of his government, the large fortified city of Pavia, which was the capital of Lombardy, as long as that monarchy lasted in Italy, a period of about two hundred years. The same prince introduced the feudal system into his new dominions, by granting large fiefs to all his chief warriors, who were called dukes, a title that was borne also by the governors of the principal cities and provinces that still remained subject to the emperors of Constantinople, for the Lombards never became masters of the whole country of Italy.

The dukes of Lombardy, in time, grew very powerful, and ruled over their own domains as independent princes. Each built a strong castle for himself, and gave estates to his chief vassals, who were called Counts, and were bound to follow the standard of their lord, whenever he required their services in the wars, as he was himself obliged to obey the summons of his prince.

In the meantime, the popes, who were originally only the bishops of Rome, were gradually rising to a much higher degree of temporal power, in consequence of the progress of the Christian religion, which the Romans had contributed to spread over the greater part of Europe.

The Christians were divided into two great sects, the Latins and Greeks; the former of whom acknowledged the pope as the head of the church; while the latter were subject to the authority of the patriarch of Constantinople. The terms Greek and Latin, as used with regard to religion, did not at that time apply to the people of any particular country, but merely had reference to

the faith they professed, so that the English, the French, and the Italians, were all Latins, because they belonged to that church of which the pope was the head.

When the Lombards first entered Italy, they were pagans, but they were very soon converted to Christianity, and, like all the early Christians, devoted a great part of their wealth to the building of churches and monasteries, which were usually endowed with extensive lands, and enriched by legacies and donations.

As long as the emperors of the east maintained their authority over a part of Italy, they were involved in frequent disputes with the pope, because he would not introduce some of the forms of the Greek church into that of Rome; and at last officers being sent from Constantinople to enforce certain decrees that were not agreeable to the people, a violent tumult was occasioned in the city; the duke or governor, with all the chief magistrates, were expelled, and the citizens proceeded to elect senators, and to establish a form of government similar to that of the ancient Roman Republic, as it existed before the time of the Cæsars. The pope was declared chief of the new Republic, and Rome was thus entirely freed from the dominion of the Greek emperors. This revolution took place in the time of Pope Gregory the Third, and very soon afterwards, the Lombards having besieged and taken the city of Ravenna, and put an end to the government of the exarchs, threatened to invade Rome, unless the Romans would submit to become the subjects of Astolphus the king of Lombardy.

In this emergency, the pope and senate applied to Pepin, the king of France, for assistance, which was readily granted, as Pepin was very anxious that the pope

should confirm his title to the French throne, which he had just usurped from its legitimate owner.

It ought to be observed that there was some excuse for this usurpation, which was a benefit to France, as the deposed sovereign was incapable of conducting the government, while Pepin was a very clever prince, and had long ruled the country, although he had not worn the crown.

Under these circumstances, the pope saw no objection to his assumption of the regal dignity, and Pepin, accompanied by his son, afterwards the renowned Charlemagne, conducted a powerful army into Italy, and totally defeated the Lombards, from whom he took the exarchate of Ravenna, which he added to the see of Rome. This event had a great influence on the religion and government of all Europe, for many ages, as it was the beginning of that absolute power, exercised in after times over all sovereign princes, and their estates, by the Roman pontiffs.

The victories of Pepin prepared the way for the overthrow of the Lombard monarchy, which was terminated by Charlemagne, the greatest conqueror of the age, who united in one vast empire, France, Germany, and nearly the whole of Italy. The last king of the Lombards was made prisoner, and sent with his wife and children into France, where they all passed the rest of their days in melancholy captivity.

Italy was not, at this period, the highly cultivated country it had been in the days of the ancient Romans. War had devastated its abundant fields and fine pastures; while the once opulent cities had been repeatedly plundered by different hordes of invaders.

Among the few states that had preserved their independence in the time of the Lombards, was that of the

Venetians, whose origin has already been noticed, and who, from a few poor fishermen, had become the most distinguished trading people in Europe. The wars had driven many wealthy families to take refuge on their little islands, which were then governed, like other states, by a doge or duke, and were growing rich and populous. Their vessels made regular voyages to Constantinople, from whence they brought silks, spices, and furs; and they also made a great profit by trading in slaves, whom they purchased in the Greek slave markets, and sold to the Saracens of Africa.

Many fine buildings had been erected on the Venetian islands, but it was not till some few years after the conquest of Charlemagne that the city of Venice was founded on the island of the Rialto. Charlemagne was not only crowned king of the Lombard states, but was also declared emperor of the Romans, a title that had been extinct for more than three hundred years.

It is said, he neither sought nor expected this honour, which was conferred on him by Pope Leo the Third, who placed the imperial crown on his head, as he knelt before the altar in the church of St. Peter's, on Christmas day, in the year 800; but it is very probable that the two potentates had arranged the matter beforehand, as the emperor, in return, bestowed on the pope a much larger share of power in temporal affairs than he had ever enjoyed before.

During the reign of Charlemagne, the feudal system was carried to a much greater extent than it had been in the time of the Lombards. The whole country was covered with castles, in which the feudal lords resided, and many of them, built for security, among the mountains, wore a gloomy appearance; yet maidens and

matrons in those strange times, spent the greater part of their lives in such dreary abodes, passing away the time in spinning, working embroidery, and playing on the lute.

Charlemagne established military stations, called marches, upon the borders of his new kingdom, to protect it from the incursions of the Arabs, who, being in possession of all the coast of Africa, were constantly invading the shores of Italy and the islands. These stations were entrusted to the care of nobles, called counts of the marches, or marquisses, which appears to have been the origin of the title of marquis.

Charlemagne died in 814, and his successors reigned over Italy till 888, when his great grandson, Charles the Fat, was deposed in France, and then Italy was separated from the empire, and became a distinct kingdom. All these princes went to Rome to be crowned, and to receive the oath of allegiance from the pope, who, at that time, was considered as a vassal to the emperor, and held his lands as fiefs of the crown. But this dependence was merely nominal, as the popes were more truly the sovereigns of Italy, than the emperors, and held their court with princely splendour, in the Lateran palace, at Rome. Few of them reigned very long, as they were usually advanced in years at the time of their elevation to the papal chair; and thus it is we find that during the reign of one emperor, the names of several different popes will occur.

The city of Rome had long been the resort of pilgrims from all parts of Europe, who came there to visit the tomb of the apostles Peter and Paul, in the church of St. Peter, and each of them left a handsome donation at the shrine, which enabled the popes to expend large

sums in building churches, and adorning them with costly ornaments; to found colleges, and numerous charitable institutions; and to provide a fund for the relief of the poor. Among the pilgrims who flocked to Rome in these early times, were many princes and wealthy nobles, who never failed to enrich the holy see by their munificent gifts, and by purchasing from the monks and clergy relics and pictures, at enormous prices.

In the time of the Lombards, Ina, a Saxon king of Britain, made a pilgrimage to Rome, and obtained the consent of Pope Gregory the Second, to found a college there, to which the British nobles might send their sons for instruction. It was supported by the famous tax called Peter pence, levied by Ina on his subjects for that purpose; and afterwards paid by several other countries, for the privilege of sending their youth also to be instructed at Rome.

After the death of Charlemagne, the Arabians, who were already in possession of the island of Sicily, took advantage of the confusion that prevailed under his successors, to invade the capital. Sailing in their light gallies up the river Tiber, they set fire to the suburbs, plundered the houses, and despoiled the churches of St. Peter and St. Paul of all their treasures.

The Catholic churches always offered a tempting booty to the Saracen invaders, on account of the quantity of silver and gold plate that decorated the altars, and the valuable jewels with which the images were adorned. St. Peter's was the most splendid church in Rome, and St. Paul's almost equalled it in magnificence; therefore, to secure them from the future depredations of the Infidels, Pope Leo the Fourth built a new city in the place

of the suburbs that had been destroyed, for the especial protection of the sacred edifices, which he restored, at an immense expense, to their former grandeur, and surrounded them and the city with a strong wall. Still the Saracens continued to ravage different parts of Italy, till one of the successors of Leo the Fourth was obliged to secure peace, by paying them an annual tribute.

About this time, Charles the Fat, the eighth prince of the house of Charlemagne, was crowned king of Italy and emperor of the Romans, by Pope John the Eighth, who on this occasion took upon himself the right of confirming the election of the emperors; and this right was long afterwards exercised by the Roman pontiffs; so that whenever a new emperor of Germany was elected, it was necessary that the pope should sanction the choice of the people before he was crowned.

Another pope, Adrian the Third, shortly afterwards made a decree, that if Charles the Fat should die without children, Italy should be separated from the empire, and be no longer governed by foreign princes, and that the emperors should in future have no authority whatever in the election of the popes; thus assuming a vast superiority over the sovereigns, which no prince, at that time, had power enough to resist; for Charles the Fat was so weak-minded a monarch that he was declared incapable of ruling the empire, and was deposed both in France and Germany, where separate sovereigns were elected; and thus the great empire of Charlemagne was dismembered, and the crown of Italy became an object of contention among several princes of that country.

RISE OF THE ITALIAN REPUBLICS.

833 TO 1152.

ITALY was, for seventy years, an independent kingdom, governed by native sovereigns, elected by the nobles and the clergy. This form of government occasioned much strife and confusion, because there were always several princes who fancied they had equal claims, and were ready to dispute the crown, by force of arms, with him on whom it was bestowed.

During this troubled period, several of the cities and states formed themselves into independent republics, each governed by a duke and senators. The cities of Italy were very different from those of any other country. They remained, for the most part, such as they had existed in the time of the Romans, inhabited by free citizens, who elected their own magistrates, and made their own municipal laws; whereas, in other countries, the towns belonged to the estates of the feudal lords, and their inhabitants were the vassals of those lords, and had no right to make laws for themselves, until they were enabled to do so by charters, granted at various times by different sovereigns. There were no free towns either in France or Germany, at this period; so that the citizens were little better than slaves, and those who exercised any kind of trade were treated with contempt, and liable to be deprived of their profits by their feudal superiors. But in Italy, the citizens

were a free and opulent class of people, and commerce was considered as an honourable calling.

The first king of Italy was Berenger, duke of Friuli, who held his court at Pavia, which had been the capital of the kingdom from the time of the conquest of Alboin, the Lombard monarch. Berenger had not long been king, when the duke of Spoleto, encouraged by the pope and people of Rome, raised an army, and laid siege to Pavia; and Berenger, after being twice defeated, was obliged to seek refuge in Germany, while the conqueror took possession of his throne; the rightful owner however, was soon restored, by the aid of the German emperor.

The troubles occasioned by the quarrels of the princes were augmented by the invasion of the Hungarians, a race of barbarians, who were almost as formidable as the Huns in the time of Attila, and who made frequent incursions into the northern states, for the sake of plunder.

While the north of Italy was kept in a perpetual state of warfare by the Hungarians, the south was ravaged by the Arabs, who still held possession of Sicily, and had made several conquests in Calabria and Apulia.

In the meanwhile, Rome was quite a distinct sovereignty from that of Italy, the latter only comprising those states formerly possessed by the Lombards; and this was the reason why the emperors of Germany were always crowned both at Rome and Milan, when Italy again became part of the German empire. This event took place soon after the death of a king, named Lothaire, who died so suddenly that it was suspected he was poisoned by two princes, who immediately seized on the government. These princes were, Berenger the Second,

a grandson of the first king of that name, and his son, Adelbert, the latter of whom was very desirous of marrying Adelaide, the young and beautiful widow of Lothaire and a daughter of another king of Italy; therefore, it would have been a very desirable alliance for the usurpers, who reigned jointly, because it would have given them a better claim to the crown.

It may appear a matter of surprise, that the pope should have sanctioned the usurpation of these princes; but there had been several very unworthy men raised to the papal chair, by the contrivance of some of the rulers of Rome, who, having obtained the sovereignty of the city by dishonourable means, were glad to have such pontiffs as would countenance their proceedings; and used their own ill-gotten power to place at the head of the church some of their own relatives; and thus it was that the sacred office was disgraced at times, and the seat of the highest dignitary in Europe filled by a person whose conduct was far from being exemplary.

The young queen Adelaide naturally refused to listen to the addresses of a lover who was suspected of having accelerated the death of her former husband; therefore, to release herself from his importunities, and from the restraint to which she had been subjected by the king, his father, who kept her shut up in a castle like a prisoner, she wrote to Otho, the emperor of Germany, a young and valiant prince, who lost no time in hastening to her assistance. Having besieged and made himself master of the city of Pavia, and several other places, he was proclaimed king of Italy, and married Adelaide; on which Berenger and his son, who had taken refuge in their castles, sent to propose terms of peace with the emperor. The queen advised her husband not to make

peace with them at all, for she knew how little they were to be trusted; but Otho, being of a very generous disposition, consented to let them hold the sovereignty as vassals of the German empire, and they did homage to him accordingly; and Otho departed with his bride for Germany.

No sooner was he gone, than Berenger began to act in so tyrannical a manner, that the pope, and several of the Italian princes, sent to request that the emperor would interpose his authority; on which he returned to Italy at the head of a large army, expelled Berenger from the throne, and was solemnly crowned both at Milan and Rome, by Pope John the Twelfth. Italy was thus re-united to the German Empire, in the year 961, and although the emperors had very little real authority over the Italians, still they were regarded as the sovereigns of the country, and alone held the title of kings of Italy.

The pope who had placed the crown on the head of Otho the First, was one of those I have spoken of as being so unfit for the sacred office he held. He was quite a young man, and indulged in habits that were very unbecoming his station; therefore the emperor thought it his duty to remonstrate with him on the subject, which gave so much offence to the youthful pontiff, that he sent to Berenger, offering to aid him in endeavouring to recover the throne, on which that prince and his son repaired to Rome; but Otho soon put them all to flight, and caused a new pope to be elected, at the same time exacting an oath from the clergy and people that no one should, in future, be invested with the papal dignity, without the sanction of the reigning emperor; and this was the true origin of the right afterwards

claimed by the German emperors of nominating or deposing the popes.

The emperors did not often visit their Italian dominions, unless called there by any act of rebellion that threatened to subvert their authority. Sometimes, a general parliament, or assembly of the states, was held in the plains near Placentia, to which the emperor repaired always with a powerful army; and there he received the homage of the dukes, and promulgated laws for the government of Italy. This assembly was attended by the nobles, clergy, and magistrates of the cities, who were all required to take the oath of allegiance to the sovereign, which few of them observed very strictly.

The south of Italy had long been divided into principalities, some of which were possessed by the Greeks, and others by Italian princes, subject to the German emperor. Some few trifling conquests had been made in the territories of both, by the Arabs, who still held the island of Sicily; and all three parties were constantly at war with each other. It happened that a great number of Normans, who had come on a pilgrimage to Italy, entered the service of some of these petty princes, who found them such an acquisition to their armies, that they were willing to pay them very liberally, and gave them a large territory in the duchy of Naples. The good-fortune of their countrymen soon brought more of these adventurers, conducted by several brave chiefs, one of whom, Robert Guiscard, conquered for himself the large provinces of Apulia and Calabria, and took the title of duke, with the consent of the pope, who promised to bestow on him the island of Sicily also, if he should succeed in taking it from the Saracens. The

new duke, in return, acknowledged himself a vassal of the pope, and agreed to pay him an annual tribute of twelve pence for every pair of oxen in the two duchies.

The war with Sicily was carried on for thirty years, when the conquest of the island was completed by Roger Guiscard, a brother of Robert the duke of Calabria, and he reigned over Sicily with the title of count. The sons of these two brave Normans inherited their respective dominions, which were shortly afterwards united by the death of the young duke of Calabria, when his cousin, Roger of Sicily, succeeded to his dominions, and by his conquests over the princes of Capua and Naples, obtained the sovereignty of all that afterwards constituted the kingdom of Naples, consisting of Naples and the island of Sicily, and still called the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, of which he was crowned king, in the year 1130.

The popes had given encouragement to the Normans, because the latter were willing to become vassals of the see of Rome; whereas the princes they conquered were dependent either on the German or the Greek emperors; therefore the Norman chiefs experienced no difficulty in getting their titles confirmed. The power of the popes was, about this period, greatly increased by the efforts of an ambitious and highly-talented churchman, who was raised to the papal dignity, by the title of Gregory the Seventh, soon after Robert Guiscard had subdued the provinces of Apulia and Calabria.

This pontiff, whose real name was Hildebrand, was the most remarkable character of the age in which he lived, and his whole life was devoted to the one object of subjecting all kingdoms, princes, and people, to the dominion of the Roman see; in short, it was his desire that the pope should be the absolute sovereign of the whole

Christian world, and he very nearly succeeded in accomplishing his aim. But the ambition of Gregory the Seventh gave rise to a long and calamitous civil war, and was the occasion of much misery, both in Italy and Germany.

This war is frequently called the war of investitures, and its cause was as follows :—The emperors of Germany had, till this period, exercised the right of nominating the pope, and also that of appointing bishops and abbots to all vacant benefices, and investing them with the fiefs which the munificence or piety of numerous princes and wealthy individuals had induced them to bestow on different churches and convents. The bishops and abbots, as well as barons, were the vassals of their respective sovereigns, who therefore claimed a share of their revenues, and the usual military aids which all vassals were bound to render to their superiors.

In every Christian state, at this period, there were vast domains attached to most of the monasteries and bishops' sees, so that in some countries the church lands formed a large portion of the kingdom, and he who possessed the right of investiture, of which I have just been speaking, was the lord paramount, or superior, of all these lands within his dominions. It is therefore easy to perceive, that if this right were transferred to the pope, it would greatly add to his authority in every part of Europe, and also considerably increase the revenues of the see of Rome.

Gregory having taken from the emperor the privilege of nominating the popes, who, according to his decree, were to be chosen, in future, by the cardinals, laid claim to the investitures, which, in some countries, were given up; but the emperor persisted in maintaining a right that

had been so long exercised by his predecessors, and this was the origin of the wars between the popes and emperors, which we shall find desolating Italy for ages after.

There was also another reason for the enmity of these potentates, which it may be as well to explain. Matilda, the countess of Tuscany, a cousin of the reigning emperor, Henry the Fourth, was mistress of vast dominions in Italy, comprising the duchies of Tuscany, Mantua, Modena, Parma, Placentia; in short, of almost all the country afterwards called the patrimony of St. Peter, to all which the emperor was next heir, in case she died without children. The lady, however, made a will, leaving all these territories, with her wealth of every description, to the see of Rome; and she also assisted the pope with money and troops to enable him to maintain his authority against the emperor, who had attempted to depose him, and elect a new pontiff. It was then that Gregory adopted a measure that created the greatest astonishment throughout Europe, and gave him that ascendancy over all temporal princes which he was so anxious to obtain. He excommunicated the emperor, declared he was no longer sovereign, and released all his subjects from their allegiance to him; thus assuming the right of disposing of empires at his will, and making all princes vassals of the holy see.

The emperor, fearing to lose his throne, made a journey to Italy, in the depth of winter, to solicit pardon for his offences; which was not granted till after he had performed a severe penance, when the pope granted him absolution, and permitted him to resume the government of the empire.

After a time, however, the emperor returned to Italy at the head of his army, and having defeated the troops

of the countess Matilda near Rome, he laid siege to the castle of St. Angelo, in which the pope had taken refuge, and would probably have been made prisoner, but for the timely assistance of Robert Guiscard, then duke of Calabria, who hastened with his Norman followers to the castle, and with some difficulty succeeded in rescuing the pope from his perilous situation, and conveyed him to Salerno, where he died shortly afterwards.

As soon as Gregory was dead, the cardinals proceeded to elect a new pontiff, but as the emperor did not choose to relinquish his own right of election, he also chose one, who was called anti-pope by the opposite party, and thus, during the civil wars, there were constantly two popes, which caused great confusion in church affairs, as the inferior clergy were sometimes at a loss to decide which of the two they ought to obey.

The countess Matilda survived Gregory the Seventh between thirty and forty years. A German prince, of the Guelph family, whom she had married, became a distinguished leader of the party opposed to the emperor, who were all called Guelphs, while the partizans of the emperor were distinguished by the name of Ghibelines. In the meantime, the Crusades had begun, and proved of great advantage to the maritime cities of Italy, which furnished vessels to transport the Crusaders with their horses and baggage to the Holy Land; besides having to supply them with provisions and all kinds of military stores; and in return for these services, they gained considerable privileges in all the ports of the Levant, and were thereby able to carry on an extensive trade with the east.

As long as the Holy wars lasted, and indeed long afterwards, the commerce of Italy was in a most flourish-

ing state, till the discovery of America, and of a new route to India by the Cape of Good Hope, carried all the eastern trade another way. But of that it will be time enough to speak hereafter.

The most opulent cities, at this time, were Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, all of which had a number of small states dependent on them, belonging to different counts, marquisses, and lords of castles, who, during the civil wars, were glad to place themselves under the protection of more powerful states. The number of these states was rapidly increasing, for every city had now its own military force, was encompassed by a wall, and defended by a citadel or tower, to which the inhabitants could retire in case of emergency. Thus, a large town, with several smaller ones dependent on it, which could bring their armed citizens to its aid in times of danger, formed a Republic, and was as free to make peace and war, or to form alliances with other nations, as any other European states.

There were a great many of these Republics in Italy, at the period of the Holy wars, some of which sided with the pope, others with the emperor, in the long contest that followed the death of Gregory the Seventh. The army of each town was headed by the magistrates, who were elected annually in an assembly of the people who met for that purpose in the great square or market place of the city.

Many of the nobles lived in castles on their own domains, and they also had their armies composed of the numerous dependents who crowded their castle halls, and the peasants that dwelt on their lands. There were no serfs remaining in Italy, for the lords of the land had found it necessary to enfranchise their slaves, that

they might have more freemen to serve in their wars. The Republics had freed all the serfs on lands belonging to the cities; and some of them had even levied a tax, in order to raise money for that purpose. The price was fixed by the senate; and all citizens, who had slaves, were obliged to bring them before the chief magistrate, and to grant them liberty, on receiving such compensation as the government considered equitable.

Such was the country over which the emperors of Germany endeavoured to maintain the authority of sovereigns; but the very little real power they could have possessed, is too evident to need observation.

The habits and manners of the Italians were far more refined than those of other nations, and their magnificent buildings, and other works of art, astonished the rough warriors of less civilized countries, who visited Italy during the Crusades. But the style of living and dress appears to have been very homely, until a more extensive commerce with the east, and the introduction of several elegant manufactures from Greece, increased the wealth and added to the luxuries of the people.

The men, in these warlike times, cared more about their horses and arms than their every day attire, and very generally wore caps covered with iron scales, and coats or cloaks of buff leather. The citizens' wives and daughters did not yet dress in silk, which was a rare and costly material, until Roger, king of Sicily and Naples, about the middle of the twelfth century, captured a number of silk weavers in some of the Greek towns, and settled them in the island of Sicily. Before that time the ladies had only linen gowns, over which they wore jackets of stuff or cloth. Silk and gold, which, as well as other costly and elegant materials, were common

enough at a later period, were, at the time of which I am now speaking, only worn by the great on state occasions.

During the reign of Henry the Fifth, the War of Investitures was carried on with such violence in Italy, that a battle was fought in the streets of Rome, when the Pope and all the cardinals were made prisoners, and serious depredations were committed in the city by the imperial troops. The emperor was excommunicated for this violence, on which he elected a new pope, and the whole country was in a state of anarchy.

About this time died the countess Matilda of Tuscany, and a fresh war commenced for the possession of her wide domains, which she had bequeathed to the church. At last, the emperor was glad to make peace, by giving up the question of investitures; but the property of the countess still remained a cause of dispute, which was never finally settled.

WARS OF FREDERICK BARBAROSSA.

1152 TO 1190.

THE reign of Frederick Barbarossa, who was elected emperor of Germany, in the year 1152, was a season of calamity throughout Italy, as this prince looked upon the popular government established by the citizens, as a sort of rebellion against his authority, and resolved to bring them under greater subjection.

There were two large towns in Lombardy, which surpassed all the rest in wealth, power, and populousness. These were Milan and Pavia; the former attached to the party of the church, the latter to that of the empire; and all the smaller towns were in alliance with one or the other of them, according to their respective sentiments, and were distinguished as the Guelph and Ghibeline towns.

Soon after his accession, Frederick Barbarossa crossed the Alps, for the purpose of taking a survey of the general state of Lombardy, particularly of the Milanese territories, which he knew were the most hostile to him. In passing through this state, he demanded, according to the feudal custom, that the consuls of the different towns should supply him and his whole army with food, lodging, and forage for their horses; which they complied with as far as they thought reasonable; but the Germans proceeded so slowly, that provisions began to fail; and the soldiers, finding the people did not bring them as much as they required, set fire to some of the villages, to the great terror of the inhabitants, who fled in crowds to take shelter within the walls of the cities.

Thus, instead of endeavouring to conciliate the goodwill of his Italian subjects, the emperor appeared among them as a cruel invader. Not one of the cities would open their gates to him, choosing rather to sustain a siege, than to admit him within their walls, knowing that he came to deprive them of their ancient rights and privileges. Several of the Lombard towns were taken, and entirely destroyed by this arbitrary prince, whose route through Italy was marked by misery and desolation.

In this hostile manner he proceeded towards Rome, where the gates were also closed against him; and he

was obliged to submit to be crowned in the church of the Vatican, which stood in the suburbs, although it was customary for this ceremony to be performed in the cathedral of St. Peter.

The reigning pope, Adrian the Fourth, was a native of England, and the only Englishman who ever attained to the papal dignity. His career was very remarkable, as he had risen from a low rank in life, entirely by his own merit, to the highest point of human greatness. His parents were poor people, residing in Hertfordshire, and being unable to provide for him, he went to France, in the hope of gaining admittance into some monastery, as he was of a thoughtful turn of mind, and had a taste for a monastic life. He was received among the brethren of a religious establishment at Paris, where he applied himself closely to study, and in course of time, became celebrated for his profound learning and piety.

At length he was chosen abbot of a monastery in Provence, and in that capacity was employed by the pope on several missions of importance, which he executed with so much ability, that the pope made him a cardinal, and sent him as legate into Denmark and Norway, where numbers of the people had returned to their ancient idolatrous worship, and were engaged in civil war with the Christians of the country. The good cardinal restored peace among them, and by his mild lessons of truth, made many converts.

Soon after his return to Rome, the pope died, and the English cardinal was elected to the vacant chair, and took the title of Adrian the Fourth. King Henry the Second, who was then reigning in England, sent him an embassy of congratulation, with some valuable presents; and the pope granted to him the sovereignty of Ireland,

which had till then been governed by Irish kings. Thus we see a person originally of a humble rank of life, arriving at absolute power, giving away kingdoms, and receiving homage from the greatest sovereigns of Europe.

But let us return to Frederick Barbarossa. Immediately after his coronation, he went back to Germany, but not without doing a great deal of mischief in his way. As soon as he was gone, the people of Lombardy began to rebuild their ruined towns, for which purpose the inhabitants of Milan generously contributed large sums of money, although they had already expended much of their wealth in assisting many of the cities to defend themselves, being content with homely fare and mean apparel, for the sake of preserving their liberty. But the patriotic exertions of the citizens of Milan, did not save them from ruin.

In three years, the emperor returned with a fresh army, determined to reduce the city to subjection; but as he knew very well that the walls were too strong to be broken through, he began to destroy all the corn, both in the fields and granaries; and as no preparations had been made for a siege within the city, the consuls saw the necessity of making terms, to avoid being driven by hunger to an unconditional surrender. Deputies were therefore sent with proposals to the emperor, who consented to leave the citizens in possession of all the privileges they had hitherto enjoyed, provided they would acknowledge him as their sovereign, and pay him an annual tribute.

This treaty was signed, but it was not long before the emperor began to infringe on the rights he had promised not to interfere with, by taking all judicial authority from the consuls, and appointing a chief magistrate with the

title of Podesta, not only at Milan, but in all the Italian cities. This was a sad blow to the freedom of the citizens, who had always been accustomed to choose their own magistrates, which is one of the most valuable privileges a people can possess; therefore, when the new Podesta, a German, arrived at Milan, he was expelled by the indignant inhabitants, who closed their gates, and prepared for a siege.

The emperor pursued his former plan of reducing the city by famine; and with that view, he made his soldiers destroy the corn before it ripened, and cut down the vines and fruit-trees, giving orders that any peasant found carrying provisions into the town, should be put to death. At last, after three years of suffering and privation, the brave Milanese were obliged, by famine, to surrender; when the emperor, who was not naturally cruel, although he was arbitrary and ambitious, ordered that every body should leave the town, before his soldiers were sent in to plunder and destroy it. It should be observed, that in all the wars of Frederick Barbarossa, we never hear of those shocking barbarities that disgrace the victories of many other commanders. He destroyed houses and fortifications; but he invariably spared the people.

The unhappy Milanese bade a sad adieu to the beloved homes they had so bravely defended, and issued from the gates of the devoted city with such property as they were able to remove, and set forth to seek an asylum in other towns, while the fine buildings and impregnable walls of Milan were speedily demolished; the emperor thus fulfilling his threat that he would not leave one stone upon another.

During the siege of Milan, the death of Adrian the

Fourth gave rise to a new schism in the church, in consequence of two popes having been elected, Victor the Third, and Alexander the Third; the former supported by the emperor and the Ghibeline faction, the latter by the Guelphs and the principal sovereigns of Europe.

Alexander retired for a while to France, but on the death of his rival, returned to Rome, and having formed an alliance with William, King of Sicily, he armed the whole of southern Italy against the emperor, who found, on his return from Germany, a more powerful opposition than he had expected, as many of the Ghibeline cities had joined the other party, in consequence of the tyrannical conduct of the podestas, whom he had placed over all the towns. Forgetting their private animosities, the two parties united in one common cause, resolved to recover their former independence. The consuls of all the cities met together, and entered into a solemn compact to assist each other in recovering their liberty, agreeing to suspend their own differences for twenty years, and to contribute during that time towards the repairs of all towns that might be injured by the war. This confederation was called the league of Lombardy, and its first measure was to rebuild the city of Milan.

The enraged emperor led his army once more to the gates of Rome, and fought a battle with the Romans near the city, in which the latter were defeated, and compelled to take the oath of allegiance to him; but the advantages he might have derived from this success, were lost in consequence of a fever that broke out in his army, and carried off in a few weeks many thousands of his soldiers, amongst whom were great numbers of the bravest and noblest knights of the empire. Frederick was therefore obliged to quit Italy, and the Italians, left to themselves for five

years, employed that interval in repairing their fortifications, improving their laws, and recruiting their finances; so that the emperor, after another attempt to reduce the Lombard states to obedience, concluded a treaty with the cities of the league, by which all their rights were fully restored; and a similar treaty was shortly afterwards made with all the other towns of Italy.

In the meantime the Venetians had been engaged in a war with the Greek emperor, Manuel Comnenus, who, in consequence of some frivolous dispute, had imprisoned all the Venetian merchants in his dominions, on which the government of Venice sent a large fleet against Constantinople, and not only compelled Manuel to release all his prisoners, but also to indemnify them for the injury they had sustained. The expenses of this war were so great, that the doge had no means of defraying them but by a forced loan; that is, every citizen was obliged to lend a sum of money to the state, for which he was to receive interest; and this was the origin of the Bank of Venice, the first national bank ever established in Europe.

Soon after the restoration of peace in Italy, news arrived in Europe that Saladin, the sultan of Egypt, had taken Jerusalem from the crusaders, and dethroned the Christian king, Guy of Lusignan. At this period, nothing was so interesting to the people of Europe, as the events that occurred in Palestine. The loss of Jerusalem was considered the greatest misfortune that could have befallen them, and all zealous Christians were eager to assist in its recovery. Bands of crusaders, from all parts of Christendom, arrived in Italy and Sicily on their way to the Holy Land; and among other leaders of high renown, were Richard the First of England, and Philip Augustus of France.

Richard's sister had, some years previously, been married to William the Second, king of Sicily, grandson of the celebrated Roger; but William was now dead, and as he had no children, had left his kingdom to his sister Constantia, who was lately married to the son of the emperor, Frederick Barbarossa. The Sicilian nobles, however, had set aside the will in favour of Constantia, and given the crown to Tancred, a prince of the Guiscard family, who imprisoned the dowager queen because she opposed his succession; but when he heard that her brother, the valiant king of England, was on his way to Sicily, he restored her to liberty, and received Richard in the most friendly manner.

The stay of the crusaders in the island was not very agreeable to the inhabitants, whose peace was disturbed by the quarrels of the French and English monarchs, and the arrogance of some of their followers. Many Sicilian nobles, and numerous brave knights from all the states of Italy, joined in this crusade. The emperor, Frederick Barbarossa, now seventy years of age, took up the cross on this occasion, and died in the Holy Land in the year 1190.

WARS OF THE GUELPHS AND Ghibelines.

1190 TO 1250.

ONE might naturally suppose that, after so many years of

cruel warfare, and so much suffering, the Italians would have been glad to enjoy a little repose; but it seems as if they were fond of tumult and bloodshed, since they were no sooner freed from a foreign enemy, than their own ancient quarrels were renewed with more violence than ever. Yet the general state of Italy, at this period, notwithstanding its internal troubles, is described as being far more prosperous than that of any other European nation. The open country was well cultivated by an active industrious race of peasantry, who laboured for their own benefit, and lived in comfort; taking little or no part in the quarrels of the great. Rich vineyards, fine pastures, and abundant corn-fields, were every where to be seen; and as it was the interest of the citizens to fertilize the districts around them, they were always ready to advance money for making agricultural improvements.

The great towns¹ presented an appearance of wealth and elegance not to be found elsewhere, being well paved, adorned with fine stone buildings, terraces, bridges, aqueducts, and fountains; and full of handsome shops, plentifully stored with valuable merchandize, brought from the east by the merchants of Venice, Pisa, and other commercial states.

It must be kept in mind, that although the numerous Republics of Italy, of which there were not less than two hundred, had been left at liberty to govern themselves, the emperor was the acknowledged sovereign of them all, and possessed the right of granting or taking away privileges from the people; a power the popes wished to be given up to them; and as both had their partisans, the whole country was disturbed by the quarrels of the two factions of Guelphs and Ghibelines.

Among the latter, were a great many nobles living in castles among the mountains, built in such situations as were most difficult of access, where they kept numerous bands of retainers, and exercised a sort of sovereignty over the surrounding country.

Most of these were Ghibelines, because it was very agreeable to them to live under nominal subjection to a prince, whose absence from the country, left them at liberty to do as they pleased; while the citizens were, in general, Guelphs, because they looked up to the pope to preserve their rights from being infringed on by the emperors.

There were, however, many Ghibeline nobles, who, in consequence of not having castles strong enough to resist an attack, or from various other causes, chose to live under the laws of the Republics, and reside within the precincts of the towns, where, to defend themselves from the opposite party, they erected fortified dwellings, with thick walls, strong towers, high narrow windows, and heavy doors of oak, secured by massive bolts and bars. The Guelph nobles, of course, followed the example of fortifying their houses; and as it was not likely that such preparations would be made in vain, civil war was thus introduced into the cities of Tuscany and the Lombard states. Each of these castles was crowded with knights, esquires, and dependents of inferior grade, who formed a little army always ready for action.

About this time, the death of the emperor, Henry the Sixth, afforded a new subject of dispute, for he had left a son to succeed him, who was only a few months old; therefore, a contest arose in Germany, as to who should govern during the minority of the infant prince. The pope supported Otho, duke of Brunswick, and all the

Guelphs of course took the same side; while the Ghibelines declared for Philip, a brother of the late emperor.

Philip was assassinated, and Otho was not only made regent, but crowned emperor, by Pope Innocent the Third; while the infant prince, Frederick, who was the lawful heir to the empire, was only called king of the Two Sicilies.

Innocent the Third was the most powerful pontiff that had occupied the papal chair since Gregory the Seventh. His authority was almost unbounded; and it was he who instituted the orders of the Dominican and Franciscan friars, whose duty it was to go into various countries to preach against heresy; that is, against any doctrines that differed from those of the church of Rome; and thus the former gained the name of preaching friars. The respective orders were called Dominicans and Franciscans, from the founders of their societies, St. Dominic and St. Francis.

It was Innocent the Third who laid the kingdom of England under an interdict, on account of the bad conduct of king John, and to him is attributed the foundation of the secret tribunal, called the Inquisition, for the detection and trial of heresy.

It happened, in the time of Innocent the Third, that an army of crusaders, under the command of Baldwin, count of Flanders, applied to the Venetians to assist them with ships for their voyage to the Holy land.

The doge of Venice, an old man, nearly ninety years of age, named Dandolo, received the French deputies in a very courteous manner, and even undertook to address the citizens on the subject, a task he performed so ably from the pulpit of St. Mark's church, that it was unanimously agreed to furnish the crusaders with ships, pro-

visions, and a squadron of armed galleys, for which they were to pay, partly in money, and partly by military service.

The doge himself sailed with this expedition, which proceeded first to Constantinople, where, under pretence of avenging the murder of the heir to the eastern empire, and expelling the usurper from the throne, the crusaders laid siege to the city, which they took after a desperate resistance, and count Baldwin was proclaimed emperor. The aged doge of Venice, clad in complete armour, fought most bravely in this engagement, and the Venetians received for their services the islands of Corfu and Cephalaria, with a large portion of the Morea, containing some rich silk manufactories, which became a source of considerable wealth to the state, as the whole of Europe was, from that time, supplied with silks from Venice.

The Venetians also purchased the fertile island of Candia, from the marquis of Montferrat, a prince of one of the Italian states, to whose share it had fallen in the division made by Baldwin; and as they now monopolized all the trade of the east through Constantinople, they grew so wealthy, that the people of Genoa, which was also a great commercial Republic, became jealous of their prosperity, in consequence of which a war broke out between these rival states, which lasted nearly two hundred years.

In the meantime, there had been appointed in all the cities, new magistrates, called podestas, to whom the chief authority was confided, and each of whom was always chosen from some other state, that he might be the more impartial in his administration of justice among the citizens in these turbulent times; for in any public

tumult so many persons were always concerned, that if the chief magistrate were a citizen, it was very probable that some of his own family or friends might be among the number of the offenders, and his judgment would naturally be biassed.

For some years the podestas, by exercising a very high degree of authority, succeeded in maintaining some order and tranquillity, till an unfortunate circumstance, which I am about to relate, caused the flames of civil war, which had only been suppressed, not extinguished, to burst forth with increased fury.

Among the great commercial cities of this period, was Florence, the chief town of Tuscany. The Florentine and Lombard merchants had established commercial houses in all parts of Europe, and their extensive and prosperous dealings enabled them to build magnificent palaces, so that Florence became the most splendid of all the Italian cities. Many of the wealthy Florentines were money dealers or bankers, and opened houses in London and Paris; and as they were the first who commenced this kind of business, it was usual for a long time to call all bankers Lombard merchants, and that street in London, where the greater number of them resided, took the name of Lombard street, which it bears to this day, and still contains more banking houses than any other street in London.

It happened, that a gentleman of Florence, named Buondelmonte, who belonged to the Guelph faction, had become attached to a young lady of a Ghibeline family, called Amadei, and had prevailed on her friends to consent to bestow her hand on him in marriage. The day was even fixed for the celebration of the nuptials, when the faithless lover changed his mind in consequence of

having seen another lady whom he preferred to his affianced bride, and who was moreover the daughter of a powerful nobleman of his own party. Regardless of his former engagement, he married the lady who had so suddenly attracted his attention; an insult that was so deeply resented by the friends of the young lady he had forsaken, that he was assassinated in the street a few days after his ill-fated marriage.

The death of Buondelmonte produced the most fatal consequences. The principal members of all the Guelph families met together and made a vow of revenge; and for many years afterwards, the streets of Florence almost daily presented some scene of violence and bloodshed. The quarrel was extended to all the other towns of Tuscany; and was carried to such a height that regular battles were sometimes fought in the streets; and as there were frequently several hundreds engaged on both sides, it was impossible for the magistrates to preserve the peace.

At every public festival or assembly of any kind, some altercation was sure to arise between a Guelph and Ghibeline, when a sort of war cry was instantly raised, and the fiery Italians, rushing forth with drawn swords at the sound, challenged all they met, to ascertain whether they were friends or foes; and thus the fighting would go on in many parts of the town at once.

Such was the state of Italy during the minority of Frederick the Second; who, when he arrived at the age of manhood, became emperor, as the Germans were not satisfied with the government of Otho, whom they obliged to abdicate in favour of their lawful prince.

Innocent the Third was now dead, which was unfortunate for the young emperor, who did not keep on good

terms with his successors, of whom there were five during his reign. Frederick was an Italian by birth, and having been educated with great care, was a very accomplished prince. He founded an university at Naples, and spent a great deal of money in beautifying that city; but like his grandfather, Frederick Barbarossa, he wanted to be an absolute king in Italy, and endeavoured to attain his object by going to war with the Republics.

For many years this new contest was carried on with great violence, and in the course of it, all the Guelph families were expelled from Florence in one night, and thirty-six of their palaces destroyed. Soon after this, a terrible battle was fought on the plains of Fossalta, when the Ghibeline army sustained a total defeat, which so affected the emperor, that he died shortly afterwards, in the year 1250.

SICILY AND NAPLES.

1250 TO 1336.

As the death of Frederick the Second is the commencement of a very interesting period in the history of Sicily and Naples, we will leave for awhile the affairs of the rest of Italy to pursue without interruption the chain of events that took place in that kingdom. As soon as the emperor was dead, his son and successor, Conrad the Fourth, went to Naples, with a view of securing the crown of the

Two Sicilies; but as the pope was opposed to his accession, the people would not admit him into the capital, on which he laid siege to it, and otherwise acted with great violence. However, he died very suddenly, when his younger brother, Manfred, already a favourite with the people, took possession of the sovereignty, under pretence of governing the kingdom for the infant heir of the late emperor, whose name was Conradin.

Manfred was an elegant and accomplished prince, courteous in his manners, brave, generous, and, in short, possessed of all the talents most likely to increase his popularity; so that, in a short time, he was proclaimed king, and thus became the usurper of his nephew's rights. The pope, Urban the Fourth, incensed at the boldness of Manfred, in assuming the title of king without his consent, wrote to Charles of Anjou, the brother of Louis the Ninth, king of France, offering him the crown of the Two Sicilies, provided he would undertake to conquer it from Manfred.

Charles was highly gratified at this proposal, which was no less pleasing to his wife Beatrice, countess of Provence, a woman of great spirit and ambition, who led an army herself through Lombardy, while her husband proceeded to Rome, where he was crowned by one of the cardinals, as the pope was absent from the city on account of the disturbances excited by the Guelph and Ghibeline factions, whose quarrels were carried on with as much violence in Rome as in any other town. The peaceable inhabitants were kept in a constant state of alarm by the turbulent nobles, who had converted all the ancient buildings of the old Roman empire into so many fortresses, where they kept troops of banditti in their pay, and did not scruple to sally forth at the head of these brigands to

plunder passengers, as well as to attack each other, so that the roads were very unsafe, and the pope therefore did not venture to return to the city to perform the coronation of the new king of Sicily.

In the mean time Manfred had been at war with the Florentines, and had forced the citizens of Florence to own him as their sovereign. He had also made several other conquests both in Tuscany and Lombardy, and was already looked upon as one of the greatest princes of his time, when Charles of Anjou invaded his kingdom, and in the first battle fought between them, the gallant but unprincipled usurper, Manfred, was slain. It was thus that the kingdom of the Two Sicilies came into the possession of the house of Anjou in the year 1265.

One of the first acts of the new king was to expel from the island of Sicily a great number of Saracens, who formed two large and flourishing colonies, and were occupied chiefly in the culture of the sugar-cane, and in the silk manufactories. They had remained undisturbed ever since the Normans first conquered Sicily; for the good king Roger was too wise a prince to banish a very industrious race of people, who became valuable subjects, both in peace and war; consequently, the prosperity of the island was very much injured by the loss of so many of its most useful inhabitants, who went over to Africa.

The Sicilians were but ill satisfied with their new government, for they were heavily burthened with taxes, and obliged to submit to the arrogance of the French soldiers, who were stationed in every town to keep them in subjection.

Charles had been king of the Sicilies about two years, when the young prince Conradin, then sixteen years of age, with the assistance of several German princes, ar-

rived in Italy, at the head of a large army, to claim his inheritance. All the Ghibelines and great captains who had fought in the service of his grandfather and his uncle Manfred, joined him, and a desperate battle was fought, in which the French were victorious, and Conradin was made prisoner, with many other brave knights and nobles.

A melancholy scene followed this victory. Conradin and his cousin Frederick, prince of Baden, a brave youth, about his own age, were beheaded in the market-place at Naples, amid a vast concourse of pitying spectators, who could not behold this cruel act of injustice without feeling the greatest abhorrence of the tyrant by whose command it was perpetrated. Many of those who had fought in the cause of the unfortunate prince, citizens as well as nobles, were also put to death, while many were deprived of their employments, and their property was confiscated.

Among the latter number was a gentleman named Giovanni di Procida, who resided at Salerno, a handsome town in the kingdom of Naples. Instigated by a wish to revenge his own injuries, and a desire to deliver his country from an oppressive government, he went to Spain to solicit the aid of Peter, king of Arragon, whose queen was Manfred's daughter, and who had therefore a claim to the crown of the Two Sicilies. He assured Peter that the Sicilians would be very glad to receive him for their king, if he could only release them from the tyranny of Charles of Anjou; and Peter was very willing to listen to these representations, but he had neither men nor money sufficient for so great an undertaking, and many consultations were held as to the means of supplying the deficiency, in all which the queen, Constance, bore a part; for she could not but feel deeply interested in a scheme that was

to avenge the wrongs of her father, and her young cousin, Conradin.

At length it was agreed that Procida should go to Constantinople to request the aid of the Greek emperor ; and on his way, he visited Sicily, and imparted his designs to some priests, who were secretly to prepare the people for a revolution. The emperor lent him a large sum of money, with which he returned to the king of Arragon, who immediately fitted out an armament, pretending that he was going to war with the Moors of Africa.

In the meantime the inhabitants of Palermo, the chief town of Sicily, knowing that they might rely on assistance from Spain, formed a conspiracy against the French, which was to be put in execution on Easter Sunday, at the hour of vespers. Accordingly, as soon as the vesper bells began to ring, the Sicilians in every part of the city made a sudden and general attack on the French, who, being totally unprepared for such a burst of popular fury, at a moment when all seemed so tranquil, were struck down before they had time to comprehend their danger ; and in an hour, only one Frenchman was left alive in Palermo, and that was a gentleman named Porcellet, who was so much esteemed that his life was spared.

This dreadful catastrophe, so often spoken of as the Sicilian vespers, took place on the 30th of March, 1282 ; and the example being followed in every other town of Sicily, the French were all, in less than thirty days, either killed or driven from the island. As soon as Charles was informed of what had happened, he hastened to Sicily to punish the insurgents, and laid siege to the town of Messina, which was bravely defended by the inhabitants, until Peter of Arragon arrived with his fleet, and was hailed by the people as their king and deliverer.

Charles was now obliged to retreat to Naples, while Constance repaired to Sicily with her two sons, and was joyfully received as queen of the island. Charles made great preparations for an attempt to recover Sicily, but died before they were completed; when his son, who had been taken prisoner by the Sicilians, was set at liberty, on condition of consenting to the separation of the crowns of Naples and Sicily, the latter to belong in future to the kings of Arragon, the former to the house of Anjou.

The reign of Charles the Second, of Naples, was spent in vain attempts to recover Sicily, notwithstanding the treaty he had made. He died in 1309, and was succeeded by his son Robert, an illustrious prince, who is celebrated as a patron of learning and the fine arts.

The Neapolitans were never so happy and prosperous as during the long reign of their good king Robert, who was by far the most powerful prince in Italy, and obtained the sovereignty over several states that were glad to place themselves under his protection. One of these was Florence, which being attacked by a renowned captain, named Castruccio, who was the first duke of Lucca, the Florentines were reduced to great distress, and sent to beg aid of the king of Naples, who granted their request, on condition that the government of Florence should be given to his son, the duke of Calabria. This point was yielded rather unwillingly; for the Florentines were attached to their republican form of government, which was vested in a council, chosen from among the citizens.

The duke of Calabria was a prince much respected and beloved in his own territories, where his amiable disposition, and love of justice, were much extolled. It was his custom to make a tour occasionally through his dominions, to see that the great barons did not oppress their inferiors.

On one of these excursions he passed through the lands of a certain count, who had just taken from one of his vassals a house and garden, because it happened to be situated in a charming spot, where he wished to erect a dwelling for himself. The duke sent for the count, and without mentioning the circumstance that had come to his knowledge, began to praise the beauty of his domain, and at last said, that he should like to have it himself, to build a palace there, and offered to purchase it of him. The count was indignant at the proposal, saying, that he would never sell an estate that had come to him through a long line of ancestors. The duke still urged the point, on which the angry count replied, that he should only get it by force, which, however, he did not believe he would be unjust enough to attempt. "Your words," said the duke, "prove that you know what justice is ; therefore, what excuse can you offer for your own injustice, in depriving your vassal of his house and land ? Restore them to him quickly, or be assured that I will take your lands, and your head too." This prince died soon after he was made governor of Florence, leaving two infant daughters, the elder of whom is celebrated in history as Joanna, queen of Naples.

The loss of his only son was a great grief to king Robert, who chose for his successor his grand-daughter Joanna, and married her, at the early age of five years, to her cousin Andrew, the second son of the king of Hungary, who was only two years older than herself. The two children, pleased with the display made at their nuptials, and not understanding the nature of the engagement they were entering into, were delighted and merry, little foreseeing the sorrows it was to bring upon them at a future period.

Andrew was educated at the Neapolitan court, but he possessed very little natural talent, and as he grew up, his manners were more like those of the rude Hungarians than the polished Italians; therefore, it is no wonder that he was not much beloved by his youthful consort, who was remarkable for her wit, grace, and beauty.

The reign of king Robert was long and glorious. His court was the resort of men of genius and learning, amongst whom was the celebrated poet, Petrarch, who was honoured by the particular friendship of the monarch, and treated with great distinction as long as he chose to make the court of Naples his residence. This elegant and accomplished poet was so much esteemed in Italy, that an ancient custom was revived in his favour, of crowning the most eminent poet of the age with laurel, in the capitol of Rome; a ceremony that was performed with great pomp and magnificence, and was considered the highest honour that could be conferred on him.

Robert died in 1343, and was succeeded by his granddaughter, Joanna, then only sixteen years of age. The oath of allegiance was taken to her, and not to her husband, who was by no means popular, and who was not to be admitted to a share in the government.

The Italians did not like the Hungarians, whom they looked upon as barbarians; and that was, perhaps, the chief cause of their enmity to poor Andrew, whose greatest offences seem to have been his want of refinement, and a dullness of intellect; very insufficient reasons for the dreadful fate that awaited him.

On the day before that fixed for the coronation of the youthful pair, they paid a visit to the castle of Aversa, one of the royal residences, situated in a lonely spot, but

extremely attractive, on account of the beautiful gardens by which it was surrounded. They were attended by a great many nobles and ladies of the court, and the whole party were to pass the night at the castle.

As this arrangement was made by Joanna herself, it caused many persons to suspect that she was aware of a plot against the life of her husband, who was cruelly murdered on that fatal night; and although she was afterwards tried before the pope, and declared innocent of this dreadful crime, there still remained a sufficient degree of doubt to leave a lasting suspicion on her memory.

The king of Hungary, Louis, who was Andrew's brother, went to Rome, and openly accused the queen of murder before the tribune Rienzi, of whom I shall have occasion to speak hereafter; but Rienzi declined giving any opinion; on which Louis prepared to invade Naples. Then Joanna, who had strengthened the suspicions of her guilt by marrying a nobleman, who was supposed to be one of her husband's assassins, fled into Provence, while Louis took possession of Naples.

One of his first acts was to put to death prince Charles of Durazzo, the husband of Joanna's sister, who was known to have been concerned in the murder of Andrew. The mode taken by Louis to accomplish this act of retribution, was singular. Disguising his knowledge of Durazzo's guilt, he contrived to draw him to the castle of Aversa, and asked him to point out the spot where his brother fell. The prince having no suspicion of his design, led the king to a balcony, when Louis instantly stabbed him to the heart. His widow, who was only eighteen years of age, sought protection in the church of Santa Croce, with her two children, one of whom

afterwards married another Charles de Durazzo, who became king of Naples.

In the meantime, Joanna arrived in Provence, of which she was countess in her own right; and here she went through a formal trial, in the presence of Pope Clement the Sixth, for the popes had removed their court from Rome to Avignon.

The queen, being pronounced innocent of the crime laid to her charge, returned with her husband to Naples, to recover the throne, from Louis of Hungary, by force of arms.

About this time, the plague broke out in Italy, and raged with such violence that many towns were half depopulated. The king of Hungary lost so many of his troops in consequence of this calamity, that he was induced to make peace with Joanna, and to leave the kingdom, when she was crowned in the city of Naples. She reigned many years in peace, and having no children of her own, adopted a nephew of the murdered duke of Durazzo, whom she brought up with the greatest tenderness. He married her niece, Margaret, and was declared heir to the throne; but Joanna's kindness was very ill-repaid by the ungrateful prince, who being impatient for the crown, raised an army sufficiently powerful to dethrone his benefactress, whom he kept in prison for several months, and then caused to be put to death.

It was an easy matter, at this period, for any prince, who was rich enough, to raise troops; for Italy was overrun with bands of robbers, who called themselves free companies, and were ready to enter the service of any one who would pay them; and of such men as these the army of Charles of Durazzo was chiefly composed. He was crowned at Naples, in 1382, but he was not long per-

mitted to enjoy the throne he had so wickedly usurped, being assassinated in Hungary, about four years afterwards.

REVOLUTIONS IN THE STATES,

DURING THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

HAVING traced the principal events that took place in Sicily and Naples during a period of one hundred and thirty-six years, let us now see what had been going on meanwhile in other parts of Italy.

Many of the Republics, beginning to grow tired of civil war, had adopted the plan of choosing some powerful noblemen to govern them, in the hope that peace might by this means be restored; and thus numbers of petty sovereignties were formed in Italy during the fourteenth century, the princes of which, at various times, obtained from the emperors the title of duke, and their territories came to be called duchies.

In these new states were generally two or more great families, who were jealous of each other, each wishing to enjoy the highest degree of power. It was no longer by the wars of the popes and emperors, but by those of private families, that the country was disturbed, so that by degrees the names of Guelphs and Ghibelines were discontinued, and instead of these factions, there arose in almost every city, two or three parties, headed by the

rival nobles, who carried on a perpetual warfare with each other.

In Rome, there were three families at variance, the Orsini, the Savelli, and the Colonna. Nearly all the castles in the patrimony of St. Peter and the Campagna di Roma belonged to them, and they all kept in their pay free companies, which were no other than banditti. The peasantry too, attracted by the hope of plunder, joined one or other of the turbulent chiefs; so that the provinces near Rome were the worst cultivated of any part of the country. The want of a proper government tended to increase these disorders, for sometimes the pope resided at a distance from the city, and sometimes there was a long interregnum between the death of one pontiff and the election of another, because the cardinals could not agree in their choice. When a pope died, it was customary for the chief magistrate of Rome to send muffled drums through the streets, and to order the gates to be thrown open. The inhabitants of every house were obliged to burn a lamp all night, in one of their windows, and a watch was held in every parish.

The intervals that occurred by the vacancies in the pontificate, were always seasons of depredation, for those who were badly inclined, never failed to take advantage of the suspension of the government, to commit robberies, and be guilty of all kinds of evil deeds; therefore, the citizens used to keep guard, by going frequently in the night, with the patroles, round their different districts.

It was about twelve years after the Sicilian vespers, that Pope Boniface the Eighth, with a view of restoring peace to Rome, proclaimed a crusade against the family of Colonna, confiscated their property, and banished

them all from the country. A crusade was a war directed against those who were regarded as enemies to the church, and as soon as it was proclaimed, they became objects of general persecution, every body being at liberty to do them all possible injury, without fear of punishment; therefore, as soon as the sentence was passed, the peasants and adventurers, who had served under the banners of the Colonnas, deserted them; their castles were destroyed; and these proud nobles were exiles, and in poverty.

Some of them took refuge in France, then under the dominion of Philip the Fair, who happening to be engaged in some dispute with the pope, sent an ambassador to Rome, accompanied by one of the exiled Colonnas, who with a few troops contrived secretly to effect an entrance into a castle where Boniface was residing, and made him prisoner. He was rescued in a few days, by the people, but had suffered so much mental agitation during his short imprisonment, that he died almost immediately after his release.

He was succeeded by Benedict the Eleventh, who restored the Colonnas to their rank and possessions; except the one who had ill-treated his predecessor.

The greater number of the popes were of noble families; but Benedict the Eleventh was a man of humble birth, who, like the English Adrian the Fourth, had risen by his merit. His mother, proud of her son's elevation, went on the day after his election to visit him at his palace, and on this occasion was attired, for the first time in her life, in silks and jewels. "This," said the pope turning away from her, "cannot be my mother, who is a poor woman, and not a princess;" and he bestowed no further notice on her then; but the next day, seeing her

in her ordinary dress, he received her with tenderness and respect; thus showing that he did not wish to forget his humble origin, nor to make the sacred office he held a means of aggrandizing his family. He made many unsuccessful efforts to restore peace to the different states, and more particularly to Florence, where a civil war was going on between two factions, who had assumed the names of Bianchi and Neri; or Whites and Blacks.

The Florentines had long been distinguished for their arts and commerce, and they very justly regarded the higher class of citizens, who attained wealth and honours by their talents and industry, as superior to the nobles, many of whom lived by plunder. They had, therefore, excluded the nobility from their council of government, which was now formed from among the citizens of certain trades or professions that were considered to be of the first class. No one could be a magistrate, or hold any office of importance in Florence, unless his name was registered as belonging to some trade or profession.

During the troubles excited by the Bianchi and Neri, a chief magistrate was appointed, called Gonfalonier, who was invested with power to punish all such as broke the peace, by drawing their swords in the streets, and when he displayed the gonfalon or standard of the state, the citizens were obliged to assemble, and assist in putting the law in force. Many persons of rank were banished from Florence in these troubled times, and among others the great poet, Dante, who had been one of the chief magistrates of the city.

In the meantime, a maritime war was going on between the two powerful Republics of Venice and Genoa. Venice, like all the rest of the Italian states, had experienced many revolutions.

In earlier times, the doge was the chief magistrate, but his power was limited by a council, chosen annually from among the citizens, till the doge Pietro Gradenigo, in 1298, passed a law that all the councillors then sitting should remain in office for life, and not only so, but that they should be succeeded by their heirs; and thus was first introduced hereditary nobility at Venice; for these councillors, who had before been only simple citizens, now ranked as nobles.

The change naturally caused great discontent among the citizens, who felt that they were unjustly treated by being excluded from the government. Conspiracies were formed, insurrections broke out, and on one occasion a battle was fought in the streets, in which some of the insurgent leaders were killed.

At length, a commission was appointed to seek out and inform against the disaffected; and this council, which at first was meant to be only temporary, was found such a powerful support to the new aristocracy, that it was made perpetual under the name of the Council of Ten. Its power was exemplified in the fate of the doge Marino Falieri, who was a man of violent passions and revengeful temper.

It happened, one day, during the carnival, which was held with great gaiety at Venice, that a young nobleman, taking advantage of being masqued, addressed some insulting words to the doge, in the street. Falieri found out who the offender was, and demanded of the senate that he should be severely punished; but his complaint being considered too frivolous to merit attention, it was disregarded, which so exasperated him, that he formed a conspiracy with some of the citizens, to destroy the whole race of nobility, and restore the ancient form of

government. The plot was discovered by the Council of Ten, and some of the conspirators being arrested, were put to the torture, to make them confess who were their accomplices. One of them uttered the name of Marino Falieri, on which the doge was instantly seized in his palace, and beheaded on the following day.

The history of Venice, at this period, consists chiefly of wars with Genoa. Both these republics had gained many foreign possessions, and both had extended their territories at home. The chief cause of quarrel was, that the last doge of Venice, Andrea Dandolo, had made a treaty with the sultan of Egypt, by which all the trade with China and India came into the hands of the Venetians, who gained the privilege of having consuls at Alexandria and Damascus, which gave them great advantages over the rival state.

About this time, the powerful family of Visconti obtained the sovereignty of Milan, and conquered in succession all the towns and principal republics in Lombardy. Their conquests were made by the help of the Condottieri, who were nothing better than captains of banditti, and were regularly paid to join the army with their men, whenever called upon.

Pope Urban the Fifth formed a league with the queen of Naples, and several Italian princes, against Barnabas Visconti, who had invaded the lands of the church, and sent two legates to Milan with a sentence of excommunication written on parchment, which the cruel tyrant forced them to eat in his presence. All attempts to suppress the power of the Viscontis were made in vain; and at length, Gian Galeazzo, the nephew of Barnabas, obtained from the emperor Wenceslaus, in 1395, for a large sum of money, the title of Duke of Milan. Gian

Galeazzo was lord over no less than sixteen large cities of Lombardy, which, in the time of Frederick Barbarossa, were all independent republics, but were now governed by princes dependent on the duke of Milan.

The popes, during the greater part of the fourteenth century, did not reside at Rome, but at Avignon in France, an arrangement that was very prejudicial to their authority in Italy, and gave rise to the revolution effected by Cola di Rienzi, at Rome. Rienzi, the son of a Roman citizen, in rather a humble sphere of life, was distinguished from his earliest youth by extraordinary talents, an ardent imagination, and an enthusiastic admiration of the liberties enjoyed by the ancient Romans, in the days of their republic. He thought those days might be restored, and seized every opportunity of impressing his own sentiments on the minds of the people. At length, taking advantage of the absence of the chief senator, Stephen Colonna, who, with the whole of that noble family, were gone on some expedition, Rienzi excited a revolt among the citizens, and projected a new form of government, which he called the Good Estate, and which was accepted by the people, who placed him at the head of it, with the title of Tribune.

He made use of his power to banish the Colonnas, and other noble families from Rome; and for a while was treated as a sovereign; but he did not continue to act with that moderation which alone could have secured the success of his enterprise, and was at last assassinated by the very people who had raised him to power. During his brief reign, the nobles had made several attacks on the city, to which they returned at his death, when the Colonnas were reinstated in the government. The old quarrels of the rival families were then renewed, and

the people became very anxious to have the pope once more residing amongst them.

Seventy-three years had elapsed since Clement the Fifth had removed his court to Avignon; and during that long interval, the whole of Italy had been a prey to misrule and civil discord. Some of the emperors had paid occasional visits to the Italian states, but their motive had been to obtain money, rather than to restore order to the country, in which latter object it is scarcely likely they would have succeeded, even if they had made the attempt.

At length, Pope Gregory the Eleventh, at the earnest solicitation of the people of Rome, transferred his residence to that city, in 1378, where he soon died; and this event caused what is termed the great schism in the church, which lasted nearly forty years. The reason was, that the French cardinals wished the papal court to remain in France; while the Italian cardinals desired that the pontiff should reside in Italy. The former, therefore, elected a Frenchman, who made Avignon his capital, taking the name of Clement the Seventh; while the latter chose an Italian, who exercised the papal authority at Rome, under the title of Urban the Sixth.

The whole of Christendom was divided between the two pontiffs; Urban being acknowledged in England, Germany, Italy, the northern states of Europe, and Portugal; while Clement was obeyed in Spain, Scotland, Sicily, Rhodes, and Cyprus. He was also supported by Joanna, queen of Naples; which caused Urban the Sixth to favour the usurpation of Charles of Durazzo.

The authority of the popes was very much diminished by this division, of which no one could see the end; for when either died, his party elected a successor, so that

there were two popes reigning at the same time; and the schism was thus kept up for thirty-eight years.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE ITALIANS,

IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

THE good taste of the Italians has, in every age, led them to prefer spending their money on works of art to keeping expensive tables. They were moderate, and even frugal in their living, but they built fine marble palaces, and adorned them with paintings, sculptures, and other ornaments; and formed gardens, grottos, and fountains. The houses of the wealthy were furnished with great magnificence. The walls were hung with velvet, satin, and tapestry; or painted in various series of pictures, finely executed, representing stories, either from the scriptures, legends of saints, or from some romance of chivalry.

The windows were of glass, painted with the rich and brilliant colours which the monks of that age knew how to produce; and which the artists of more modern times vainly endeavoured to imitate, the art being lost for a time, but now revived; though it is considered that the colours produced in the present day are less brilliant and durable. The great princes used carpets, mostly of velvet; but the general custom was, to strew the marble floors with rushes, or sprigs of yellow broom.

The floors of the ordinary houses of the citizens were usually formed of bricks, which were preferred to wood, because they could be more frequently cooled with water, which is a great luxury in a hot climate. They were always covered with rushes.

The Italians took only two meals in the day; one about noon, and the other about the time that we should call six o'clock, but which, with them, was an uncertain hour, as they reckoned their time from sunset, counting twenty-four hours from one sunset to another; so that every day began at a different time, and their clocks had to be regulated accordingly. The first clock in Italy was set up at Genoa, in 1328.

The tables of the great were spread by esquires and pages, who waited on their lords, and dined after them. These were frequently young men of high birth, who were brought up in noble families that they might be fitted for the honours of knighthood, which, in the days of chivalry, were only to be obtained by serving some great lord as page and esquire for a certain term of years. They had many duties to perform, such as taking care of the horses and armour, carving the meats, serving the wine, and being always in readiness to attend upon their patron.

The pages were often employed by the ladies of the family, and very carefully instructed in religious duties by the priests or monks, who formed a part of every establishment, and exercised great influence even in the domestic affairs, as they were consulted on every occasion. To them all faults were confessed, and they were looked to for consolation under every affliction. The esquires and pages, although obliged to perform certain services, were not classed with the menial attendants; but when

they had gone through the duties of the day, and cleared the hall, they were permitted to dance, or join in other amusements with the guests ; and afterwards, they served the evening repast, which consisted of spiced wines and confections. Female servants were never seen except in the ladies' apartments, and were only employed to assist at the toilet, spin, sew, or work embroidery, with their mistresses.

The costume of this period was so varied that, except in one or two particulars, it admits of no exact description. All men of fashion wore long hair, curled in ringlets, over their shoulders, and velvet caps of different forms. Their shoes had long points, turned up and fastened to the knee with gold or silver chains. Some wore tight vests of flowered silks, or gold brocade, fitted to the shape, with short cloaks; while others had long flowing robes, and long beards, like the people of the east. The ladies wore long trains, and large hanging sleeves. Their heads were usually ornamented with crowns or garlands, and when they went abroad they wrapped themselves in large mantles and hoods, which were also much worn by the other sex,

When the duke of Calabria was made governor of Florence, he set out from Naples, attended by a very splendid retinue. All the knights and nobles in his train were in brilliant armour, over which they wore mantles of cloth of gold, or crimson, lined with ermine, and their arms embroidered on a square of black silk at the back. Each knight was attended by several squires, in cloth of silver, mounted on horses richly caparisoned. The duchess, with her train, travelled in litters, drawn by mules, the usual conveyance for ladies; but they had also rather clumsy vehicles, in the form of waggons, covered with

cloth of gold, or velvet, and called chariots, although they were neither so light nor so convenient as a modern market cart. The duke himself wore a mantle of violet coloured silk, embroidered with golden lilies, violet being the distinguishing colour of the royal family of Naples.

Sumptuary laws were frequently made, especially at Florence, to check the extravagance of the people in their attire; and among other superfluities that were prohibited about this time, were tresses of white and yellow silk, which the ladies used to wear instead of their own hair, and which appear to have been forbidden, not on account of their expense, but because they were so ugly and unbecoming; still the ladies of Florence were so attached to these silken tresses, that they presented a petition to the duchess of Calabria, praying that they might be permitted to resume them, and their request was granted. These tresses were probably made of silk in its natural state, as the only colours mentioned are white and yellow. The rearing of silkworms was much attended to in many parts of Italy, but more particularly in the duchy of Modena, where it was the chief occupation of the peasantry.

A law was made in that territory, in 1327, ordaining that every landed proprietor should plant three mulberry trees on his estate; that all the cocoons should be sold in the market; and the buyer and seller should each pay a sum, equal to one shilling, to the government; which produced a considerable revenue, but at the same time made silk very dear. The principal silk manufactures were now at Venice, which supplied all Europe with silks and Indian goods of every description.

The Italian merchants, even of the wealthiest class, were accustomed to attend all the great fairs in France,

Germany, and other countries, with their merchandise, and were called Lombard merchants.

The only town in Italy, at this time, which possessed machinery for twisting the silk, was Bologna, which grew very rich in consequence of having all this trade to itself. Bologna was a very ancient city, famed for arts and learning, and containing the most celebrated and, probably, the oldest university in Europe, where, it is reckoned, there were at this time not less than ten thousand scholars, the greater number of whom were studying the law; a very essential part of education in a country where so large a proportion of the people was called upon to assist in the government, and where there were so many separate governments.

All nobility in Italy depended upon landed possessions. No man could have a title unless he had an estate; and if he sold his land, his title went with it to the purchaser; so that if a duke had sold his estates to his servant, the servant would have become the duke; while the master would have been called by his plain name, as signor Francesco, or signor Pietro, or whatever else his more familiar name might be; for it was not customary to address any one by his surname.

The amusements of the Italians in private society, in the fourteenth century, were very similar to those of our own times. Dancing, singing, playing on various instruments, and reciting, were the favourite diversions of young people of both sexes; and one of the pastimes of children was a game they called Guelphs and Ghibelines, which was exactly like a game which many little folks in England are acquainted with by the name of Oranges and Lemons.

The greatest public festival in Italy was the carnival,

which began soon after Christmas, and continued till the first day of Lent. It was a season of universal gaiety and general masquerade; but of this I shall speak more fully hereafter.

Among the improvements of this period was the invention of spectacles, one of the most important and beneficial discoveries the genius of man has ever made. It is not quite certain who was the real inventor of glasses to assist the sight, but it is supposed that a citizen of Florence was the first person who found out a method for grinding lenses, but that the fear of losing any of the profit to be derived from this art, caused him to keep it a profound secret.

It happened, however, that Alexander Spina, a monk belonging to a convent at Pisa, set himself to work to discover the mode of making these glasses, and having at length succeeded, he taught the art to others, and thus it became generally known. Before this invaluable discovery, how many aged persons there must have been who, from the failure of sight, were deprived during the latter part of their lives of the pleasure and consolation of reading! how many highly gifted individuals there are whose talents, in consequence of a weak or imperfect vision, would be almost useless to themselves and lost to the world, if it were not for the aid of an auxiliary, which enables them to see more distinctly!

The names of great generals find a place in history, and the deeds by which thousands of their fellow creatures have been destroyed, are sometimes praised; but where shall we find a conqueror who has ever conferred so great a benefit on mankind as the individual that invented spectacles?

The Italian Republics had now almost entirely disap-

peared, and in their places had arisen a number of states, in each of which the sovereignty was generally usurped by some tyrant who had contrived to render himself sufficiently powerful to seize it. Assassination was but too common a road to a ducal throne, which was sometimes gained by the assistance of those desperate and unprincipled captains who were ready to serve any one who would pay them well.

The chief states, at this time, were Milan, Venice, Florence, and the kingdom of Naples, each of which had many cities, that were formerly independent Republics, subject to it; so that the dominion of the lord of Milan extended over nearly the whole of Lombardy, and even into the Tuscan states.

Gian Galeazzo Visconti made an offer to king Edward the Third, of England, to give his second daughter in marriage to Lionel, duke of Clarence, the second surviving son of the English monarch, with a dowry of one hundred thousand gold florins, (the value of a florin was about three shillings,) and lands in Piedmont worth twenty-four thousand florins a year; or if it were preferred by the prince to have the whole dowry in money, he proposed giving two hundred and fifty thousand florins, besides furnishing his daughter with costly jewels, dresses, and furniture, and sending her with a suitable escort to Calais at his own expense. The latter proposal was accepted, and the young lady became the bride of the English prince, who was a widower.

Visconti, like most of the powerful Italian nobles, kept in his service several of the condottieri, or hired captains, who were the principal means of supporting him on the throne; and on that account he entrusted them with the guardianship of his two sons, Gian and Filippo Maria,

who were both under age at his death. This imprudent confidence was followed by the consequences that might naturally have been expected. The boys were robbed of the greater part of their inheritance, and the captains became lords of different principalities, which they seized for themselves. Then the nobles, who had been dispossessed of their states by the Viscontis, took advantage of the confusion to recover them, and among others, was Francesco de Carrara, the chief of an illustrious family, who had held the sovereignty of Padua and Verona, until those cities had been compelled to surrender to the late lord of Milan.

The Venetians had taken the same opportunity of extending their dominions in Lombardy, and besides making conquests, had induced the duchess of Milan to renounce, in the name of her young sons, all right over their two cities of Padua and Verona, and to give them up to Venice; on which the senate immediately declared war against Carrara, the lord of Padua, and sent a powerful army into his territories. All his principal fortresses were taken, one by one, and at length the citizens of Padua were obliged by famine to surrender, and Francesco de Carrara, with his two sons, were made prisoners and sent to Venice, where they were confined in the dungeons beneath the palace, and put to death there in secret by a decree of the dreaded Council of Ten, a court in which mercy was never found.

The government of Venice was at that time the most powerful, and at the same time the most severe, of any in Europe. The senate and council held their sittings in the spacious marble halls of the ducal palace with as much state as if they had been a congress of kings, instead of citizens.

The state prisons at this time were in the vaults under the palace; but in after times, other cells were made on the opposite side of the canal, and connected with the residence of the doge by the Bridge of Sighs; so called because it was the passage by which the wretched victims of tyranny were conducted from the judgment hall to the fearful doom that awaited them. The cells, which were quite dark, were of stone, and were low and narrow, with a door of iron, and a small hole, through which the daily allowance of bread and water was given to each unhappy inmate, who had no furniture, and nothing but a little straw to sleep upon. In these dungeons, many a man of noble birth, wholly guiltless of the crime laid to his charge, may have suffered torture and death; for as the proceedings of the Council of Ten were all conducted in secret, so the sentences pronounced by these terrible judges were sometimes executed secretly; as in the case of Carrara and his sons.

The power of the Council of Ten, and the manner in which it was exercised, are clearly shown in the melancholy story of the doge Foscari, who was at the head of the government at the time of which I am now speaking, and during a period of thirty-four years that he occupied that high station, he had rendered eminent services to the state, and by his many virtues had gained the respect and affection of the people. It was, perhaps, the high estimation in which he was held, that excited the jealousy of some of the senators; but as they could not find any charge to bring against him, they falsely accused his favourite and only surviving son, Jacopo, of having caused the assassination of one of the Council of Ten, and the unfortunate young man was put to the torture to make him confess a crime of which he was not guilty.

He was banished, and for some years had lived an exile from his parents, wife, and children; when, knowing that his innocence had been proved, he solicited permission to return to his native country. This favour being refused, Jacopo had recourse to an expedient that exposed him to fresh persecutions, which was to write to Visconti, the duke of Milan, to beg that he would intercede in his favour.

The letter was, as he intended it should be, intercepted, and carried to the Council of Ten; on which the exile was brought back to Venice, and again imprisoned for having been detected in a correspondence with the ruler of a rival state, contrary to the laws of Venice.

I will not dwell upon the cruel treatment experienced by the only son of the doge, who had no power to release him, or even to mitigate his sufferings, or save him from his final doom of banishment for life. Soon after this, the doge was himself deposed, on account, it was pretended, of his great age, and died a miserable, broken-hearted old man, in the year 1457.

Although the government of Venice was so arbitrary, the citizens and peasantry enjoyed a high degree of prosperity, for the taxes were few, the commerce and manufactures flourishing, and the provinces well guarded from invasion; so that this state had not been ruined, like others, by warfare. The Venetians had rich manufactures of silks, gold and silver brocades, and mirrors that were famed all over the civilized part of the world. Their vessels visited every port of the Mediterranean, and supplied all Europe with the luxuries of the east, which they brought from Syria and Egypt. The India trade was at that time carried on in the following manner:—The Jewish and Turkish merchants purchased at Goa, Calicut,

and Cochin, the spiceries and other productions of India and China, which they imported into Syria by the Persian Gulf, and into Egypt by the Red Sea. These commodities were then conveyed by land to Alexandria and Beyrout, where the merchants of Venice went to make their bargains, and whence they brought home ship loads of goods, which were sent from Venice into all the countries of Europe. Such was the prosperous state of the Venetians in the middle of the fifteenth century; at which time they had reached the summit of their greatness; for before the same century came to a close, the maritime discoveries made by Christopher Columbus and Vasco di Gama, diverted the Indian trade into another track, and led to the downfall of the republic of Venice. But in the meanwhile, many events occurred in different parts of Italy, which demand our attention.

About four years before the death of Foscari, a very important revolution took place in the Greek empire. The Turks had long been in possession of a part of Greece, and had established the seat of their government at Adrianople, where four sultans had reigned in succession, sometimes being at war, sometimes at peace with the Greek emperors; till Mohammed the Second, a valiant and enterprising prince, completed the conquest of the Greek empire, by the siege and capture of Constantinople, which has from that time been the capital of the Turkish empire.

This conquest caused a great number of Greeks to take refuge in Italy, where they introduced the study of the Greek language and literature, for which academies were founded in every great city, but more especially at Florence and Naples, where the chief rulers were great friends to learning and the fine arts. The most influen-

tial person in the government of Florence was a wealthy merchant, named Cosmo de Medici. He was at the head of a commercial establishment, which had counting-houses in all the great cities of Europe, and lived in a magnificent palace at Florence, where he was constantly surrounded by poets, artists, and learned men, who enjoyed his patronage and experienced his liberality. This great merchant was considered to be the richest commoner in Europe, and he was so generous that his purse was open to all who needed assistance, provided they deserved it; so that he was extremely popular, and had risen to the head of the state, which he ruled as a prince.

Florence was at this period in as flourishing a state as Venice. The Florentines had in their city some of the finest manufactures in the world, among which we may reckon those of gold, silver, and woollen stuffs, which were carried to great perfection. The territory around was well cultivated; and the peasants, not being oppressed with taxes, were industrious and happy, so long as they were undisturbed by war, which was not often the case while the ambitious family of Visconti ruled over Milan.

In the year 1425 the Florentines, having purchased of the Pisans, the port of Leghorn, which was then only a small village, wished to open a trade with Alexandria, and sent out an ambassador with presents to the sultan of Egypt, who granted them permission to establish settlements in his dominions, with a church, warehouse, and bath at each. They were also to have a resident consul at every settlement, and to enjoy the same privileges that had been granted to the Venetians. Cosmo de Medici had a large share in this trade, which was continued by his grandson, Lorenzo, called the Magnificent, to whom the sultan of Egypt, in his turn, sent an embassy, with

many splendid gifts, amongst which were some large vases of porcelain, a manufacture at that period but little known, and esteemed equally curious and beautiful.

While the family of the Medici was rising to eminence in Florence, the young Viscontis had grown up to manhood, and Gian, the elder, having rendered himself hateful by his cruel and tyrannical disposition, was assassinated. His brother then came into possession of the duchy, and went to war for the recovery of all the provinces that had fallen into other hands during his minority; and thus the whole of Lombardy was again a prey to the miseries of civil warfare for several years.

Before I proceed with the events of this war, it will be necessary to take a retrospective view of the history of the kingdom of Naples, from the death of the queen Joanna. That unfortunate princess, at the time when Charles of Durazzo was besieging her castle, made a will, by which she left her dominions to Louis of Anjou, the brother of the king of France. Charles, however, took possession of the throne, as we have already seen; and after his death, which took place, by violence, in Hungary; his son, Charles the Third of Durazzo, became king of Naples. It was then that Louis of Anjou invaded the country, for the purpose of claiming the crown in right of the queen's will; but he died before he had time to put his hostile designs in execution, and the king did not long survive him. Each of these princes left an infant son, and a war was commenced on account of the two children, directed by their mothers, which desolated the kingdom of Naples, during the latter part of the fourteenth century, and ended in favour of Ladislaus, the son of Charles de Durazzo, an ambitious youth, who, not content with his own territory, endeavoured to extend its

limits by making conquests in the states of the church. This was at the time of the great schism, which had caused a civil war in Rome, and reduced that city to a most deplorable condition. Many of its stately edifices were in ruins; the churches were neglected; the streets filled with dirt and rubbish; and the poorer classes of the inhabitants were in want of the common necessities of life.

In the year 1409, a council had been held at Pisa, which was attended by most of the chief prelates of Christendom; when both the popes then reigning were deposed, and a single pope was elected; but this measure only served to increase the difficulty it was intended to remedy, as neither of the deposed pontiffs would resign his authority; and the third also choosing to maintain the dignity just bestowed upon him, there were three popes instead of two, each of whom had his supporters; it was therefore no wonder that Rome should be in a very disturbed state, or that it should become an easy prey to the young and enterprising sovereign of Naples, who made himself master of the city, of which he kept possession for two years, when it was conquered from him by the Florentines; and this was the beginning of a war between Florence and Naples.

The schism was terminated in 1417, by the interference of the emperor Sigismund, who summoned a council at Constance, when the popes, John the Twenty-Second and Gregory the Twelfth, were both induced to resign, and a cardinal of the noble family of Colonna was elected to the holy see by the title of Martin the Fifth.

Great was the joy of the people, particularly the inhabitants of Rome, at this event. As the new pope rode through the streets of Constance, the emperor of Germany and the elector of Brandenburg walked on each

side, leading his horse by the bridle. Of such a kind were the honours then paid to the sovereign pontiff. By the exertions of this excellent man the distresses of the Roman population were relieved, the ruined buildings repaired, and the city soon restored to its former state; whence he acquired the name of Romulus the Second, as the restorer or refounder of the city of Rome.

Ladislaus of Naples had died some time before the elevation of Pope Martin the Fifth, and was succeeded by his sister, Joanna the Second, who reigned twenty years, during which time little of interest occurred at Naples; but at her death, a dispute arose between René of Anjou and Alfonso, the king of Arragon, the former claiming the crown as heir of the house of Anjou; the latter founding his pretensions on his descent from Manfred, king of the Two Sicilies. The duke of Milan took the part of René, while the Florentines supported Alfonso; for Milan and Florence were at war with each other, therefore they were sure to embrace opposite parties.

Among the great captains of the age was Francesco Sforza, one of the boldest and bravest men of his time, and no less ambitious than brave; so that, although he was originally only the son of a peasant, he entertained thoughts of becoming some day duke of Milan; and as one step towards that object, he wooed and won the duke's fair daughter, Bianca, who brought him two lordships for her dower. The father of Francesco Sforza was a peasant, named Jacomo Attendoli, born in the village of Corignola, in the Romagna, a province bordering on the Adriatic sea. It is said that, when a young man, as he was at work one day in the fields, he was invited by some soldiers to join their company, and being undecided, he threw his spade into a tree, saying to it, "Thou shalt

decide my fate: if thou fallest to the ground, I will be content with my present lot; if not, I will try my fortune." The spade remained in the tree, and the adventurer joined the band, and served with renown in the armies of several Italian princes. He rose to be a great captain, and received the title of count di Corignoli from one of the popes. His son, Francesco, called Sforza, was engaged in the service of the Florentines, and fought against Visconti; yet on the occasion of a peace being made, the duke did not object to give him his daughter in marriage; hoping perhaps, by that means, to secure his services in case of another war; but when the war broke out again, Sforza resumed the command of the Florentines, notwithstanding his alliance with Visconti.

René of Anjou had been crowned king of Naples, where he reigned seven years, but not in peace, as Alfonso of Arragon and his allies carried on an incessant warfare to expel him from the throne.

Previously to the breaking out of this war for the succession of Naples, the Genoese had voluntarily placed their republic under the protection of the duke of Milan; and as they felt bound to assist him against his enemies, they opposed Alfonso, whom they defeated in a naval engagement, when the king, with his son and some of the chief nobles of Arragon, were made prisoners and sent to Milan. The Genoese thought they should gain great credit by this victory, therefore they were much surprised and very indignant when the duke not only set all his captives at liberty, but changing his politics, withdrew his alliance from René, and assisted Alfonso to ascend the throne of Naples. This extraordinary conduct was owing to the representations of the captive monarch, who had pointed out to Visconti the danger in which the

duchy of Milan would be placed, if the French were allowed to establish themselves firmly at Naples. Visconti saw the justice of his arguments, and acted accordingly; on which the offended Genoese immediately withdrew their allegiance from him. Alfonso quickly restored peace and prosperity to Naples. He was one of the best princes of his time, and so much beloved in his new kingdom, that he received the surname of the Magnanimous. In his patronage of learning and the fine arts, he rivalled his contemporary, Cosmo de Medici; and in both these great men the fugitive Greeks found friends and protectors, when they were driven from Constantinople by the Turks.

About five years after the accession of Alfonso to the throne of Naples, died Filippo Maria Visconti, and as he left no sons, the citizens took the opportunity of electing a council, to govern as in the time of their ancient Republic. But Francesco Sforza had other views, and although females were excluded from the ducal throne of Milan, he claimed the sovereignty as husband of the late duke's daughter, and by the help of his army, finally succeeded in obtaining it. In this war fire-arms were first used by the militia of the towns. Sforza was the intimate friend of Cosmo de Medici, and these two great men died within two years of each other; the one in 1464, the other in 1466.

Cosmo was succeeded by his son Pietro, who, on account of ill health, took very little part in the affairs of the government, nor was he otherwise much distinguished during the short time that he survived his father; but his son, Lorenzo, is an illustrious character in the history of Florence, where he is graced with the title of the Magnificent. Pietro de Medici had two sons, Lorenzo and Giuliano, both elegant and accomplished young men,

who were the heirs of their grandfather's vast wealth and power, which caused them to be regarded more in the light of princes than that of simple citizens and merchants. They were introduced to all foreign ambassadors, as the principal persons in the state, and made themselves extremely popular by giving public festivals at their own expense, so that Florence was a perpetual scene of gaiety.

The high consideration enjoyed by the Medici, excited the jealousy of another noble family, called Pazzi, who conspired against the lives of the two brothers, Lorenzo and Giuliano. Conspiracies were, at this time, common in most of the Italian states; nor was it to be wondered at, when so many of them were ruled by tyrants who had raised themselves to power by force of arms. The son and successor of Francesco Sforza had just fallen by assassination; and although his murderers, three young men of noble families, were put to death for the crime, their fate did not deter the enemies of the Medici from making a similar attempt. The wicked deed was to be perpetrated in the cathedral, and a day was fixed when the young men were sure to be both present, as it was the celebration of some religious festival. They entered the church, and knelt at a little distance from each other. Both were struck at the same instant, and Giuliano fell dead; but the blow aimed at Lorenzo, missed, and he had time to start up and draw his sword. His attendants did the same, and two or three of the assassins were pursued and cut in pieces by the enraged populace. The death of the ill-fated Giuliano was avenged by the execution of not less than two hundred persons, who had been concerned in the plot.

Lorenzo de Medici was called the Magnificent, not only on account of the princely style in which he lived,

but from the liberal patronage he bestowed on the arts, and on every thing connected with the improvement of his country. All men of superior talent were welcome at his table, which was always surrounded by the most celebrated poets, painters, sculptors, architects, and authors; while, for the benefit of young artists, he formed his beautiful gardens into an academy of arts, by collecting, at an immense expense, fine statues and vases, and other works of art, as studies for them. The famous Michael Angelo was one of the students in this elegant school.

Among the arts invented about this time, and improved under the auspices of the Medici family, was that of copper-plate engraving, which is supposed to have been discovered by Finiguerra, a goldsmith of Florence, soon after the invention of the art of printing.

Under the administration of Lorenzo de Medici, Florence attained to the highest degree of prosperity. The inhabitants, free from wars and tumults, were actively employed in commercial and manufacturing pursuits; and their oriental trade was extended by the exertions of their illustrious merchant sovereigns. The silks and linens of the Florentines were made from the produce of their own territories, where the cultivation of flax and the rearing of silkworms afforded abundance of occupation for the country people; but the wool used in the manufacture of cloth and stuffs, came from Spain and England.

Lorenzo the Magnificent died in 1492, a year memorable for the discovery of America, which was quickly followed by that of a new passage to India, round the Cape of Good Hope. This last event was a fatal blow to the commercial prosperity of the Venetians. Until

this period, the only route to India and China was either through Egypt or Syria; consequently, all kinds of merchandise had to be conveyed for a long distance, overland, in caravans, which was a very hazardous and expensive mode of bringing them, and caused them to be sold very dear; but after the Portuguese merchants had discovered a new way by sea, they were able to bring Indian goods to Lisbon at a much cheaper rate, and consequently to sell them at a less price than the Venetians; so that the merchants of other European countries made their purchases at Lisbon, instead of Venice, which was never again so rich and powerful as it once had been.

While Lorenzo the Magnificent was reigning at Florence, the kingdom of Naples was under the dominion of Ferdinand, the son of Alfonso the Great. When Lorenzo died, Ferdinand was nearly seventy years of age; and he soon died also, leaving his crown to his son Alfonso the Second, a prince of very little courage or ability, as we shall presently see. The princes of Anjou had made no claim to the kingdom of Naples, since the expulsion of René, till just before the death of Ferdinand; Charles the Eighth of France, sole heir of the house of Anjou, revived the pretensions of that family to the Neapolitan throne, and entered Italy at the head of a formidable army.

The pope Alexander the Sixth, being in alliance with the king of Naples, formed a league with Pietro de Medici, the son of Lorenzo, and chief ruler of Florence, to prevent the French from passing through Tuscany or the states of the Church. The cities of Lombardy, however, offered no opposition, and the king of France had advanced a long way into Italy, when Pietro de Medici was unwise enough to go alone to his camp, for

the purpose of holding a conference with him on the subject of his expedition. Why he should venture thus unadvisedly to place himself in the power of an enemy, who was so likely to take advantage of such a circumstance, no one was able to guess; but it was supposed he did it with a view of gaining applause for his courage, as he had heard his father extolled for an act somewhat similar, when he was at war with the king of Naples.

But the quarrel between the Neapolitan monarch and his father Lorenzo de Medici, was a personal one, which might be settled by an interview between them; and it was on that account Lorenzo had generously resolved to expose himself to danger, rather than distress his subjects by continuing a war in which they were not at all interested; so he went alone to the court of Ferdinand of Naples, who was so much gratified at such a mark of confidence from so great a man, that he treated him as an esteemed friend. They settled their differences, and the noble Florentine returned with safety and honour to his own city.

It was, probably, the desire of imitating the magnanimous conduct of his father, on this occasion, that induced Pietro de Medici to visit Charles the Eighth, forgetting that the difference of the circumstances made it an act of folly in him to do so. But he paid dearly for his exploit, as Charles would not suffer him to depart, until he had given up some of the most important fortresses in the territory belonging to Florence, to be garrisoned by French troops; and thus the French were established in the very heart of Tuscany.

The Florentines were so indignant at the loss of their fortresses, and the folly which had brought an enemy

amongst them, that they resolved to banish the whole of the Medici family from Florence. The senators placed guards at the door of the palace, to prevent the entrance of Pietro to the council, where he had been accustomed to preside as chief ruler of the state; on which he assembled his brothers and a few friends, who rushed through the streets, shouting aloud the war cry of the Medici, in the hope of rousing the citizens to arms; but no one answered the call, and the whole party found it necessary to provide for their own safety by leaving the city.

In the meantime, king Alfonso of Naples, hearing of the approach of Charles of France, was so much alarmed, that he resigned his crown to his son Ferdinand, and went away in all haste to Sicily, where he soon afterwards entered a monastery. Ferdinand, however, did not seem any more inclined to fight for his crown, than his father; for when the French drew near, he also fled, and the terrified Neapolitans opened their gates to the enemy.

The King of France, viewing himself in the light of a conqueror, entered the city in triumph, and took up his residence in the deserted palace, while he sent his officers with troops into the several provinces, to enforce their submission. Charles and his nobles were so much pleased with the beautiful town of Naples, and the Italian mode of living, which was very far superior to that of the French, that they thought of nothing but feasting and amusing themselves with tilts, tournaments, bull-fights, and all kinds of entertainments; and thus three months passed away pleasantly enough, when news arrived that a powerful league was formed in the north

of Italy, for the purpose of driving the French out of Naples.

The members of this confederacy were the pope, the emperor Maximilian; Ferdinand and Isabella, the king and queen of Spain; Sforza, the duke of Milan; and the Venetians; who had raised a very powerful army, which was preparing to march against the king of France. Charles knew it would be impossible for him to contend against such a force, therefore he made hasty preparations for his departure; and having appointed his cousin, Gilbert de Montpensier, viceroy, he set off with some of his troops, leaving the rest to defend the kingdom as they best could.

In a valley, at the foot of the Apennines, at Fornova, the king was intercepted by a part of the combined army, under the command of the marquis of Mantua, and was obliged to give battle. Though his forces were inferior, in numbers, to those of the enemy, he gained a victory; and with some difficulty, and great loss, succeeded in returning to his own territories, where he died, about two years afterwards.

Charles was succeeded, in France, by Louis, Duke of Orleans, called Louis the Twelfth, who carried war again into Italy, and made a conquest of the duchy of Milan. This prince was a grandson of Valentina, the sister of Filippo Maria Visconti, and in right of that lady he claimed the ducal throne of Milan, now occupied by Ludovico Sforza. I need not detail the events of this war, which ended in favour of Louis, who became duke of Milan, while Sforza was made prisoner, and sent to France, where he passed the rest of his life in captivity. Louis held the sovereignty of Milan from the year 1500 to 1512, during which time he made an attempt to

re-conquer Naples, from which the French had been expelled, soon after the departure of his brother Charles from that kingdom.

Ferdinand of Naples had been succeeded by his uncle Frederick, who was cousin to Ferdinand, King of Spain, a prince not remarkable for uprightness of conduct, as Frederick found to his cost. Now Ferdinand had a secret desire to obtain Naples for himself; but he could not very well go to war openly with his cousin, for whom he professed a great friendship, therefore he made arrangements with Louis of France, which was highly disgraceful to both these great potentates.

The plan was this: Louis was to invade Naples on the north, and Ferdinand was at the same time to land an army in the south, under the pretext of assisting his cousin; but instead of doing so, he was to find some occasion of quarrel with the Neapolitans, and to aid Louis in conquering the kingdom, which they agreed to divide between them. The scheme was carried into effect, so far as related to the conquest of the country; and Frederick, an amiable and talented prince, was sent a prisoner into France. But when the two conquerors came to the question of sharing their spoils, they could not agree at all; or perhaps Ferdinand purposely raised a dispute, that he might have an excuse for trying to obtain the whole; which he eventually did by going to war with his late ally, who was defeated, and forced to retreat; very much mortified, no doubt, at having been so completely outwitted.

It was thus that Naples came into the possession of the Spaniards. The expedition of Charles the Eighth had drawn the attention of many European nations towards Italy. The French, Swiss, Germans, and Spaniards, all

saw that it was a beautiful, rich, and fertile country, which might be easily subdued, because its states being disunited, each of them had its own enemies to contend with, so that they could not assist each other.

Venice, the most powerful of all the states, was involved in a war with the Turkish sultan, Bajazet the Second, who wanted to deprive the Venetians of their islands and ports in the Levant; and this was the reason why they were not able to assist the duke of Milan to defend his territories against Louis of France.

There were now only three independent states remaining in Italy: and these were Tuscany, Venice, and the states of the Church. Venice was considerably weakened by the Turkish war, and as the greatness of that republic had caused much jealousy to other states, there were several princes ready to take advantage of its misfortunes, to endeavour to accomplish its ruin. With this intent, the pope, the emperor, and the kings of Spain and France formed an alliance called the league of Cambray, in 1508, about seven years after the conquest of Naples by the Spaniards, and Venice was invaded on all sides at once.

The danger was great, and the republic would certainly have been totally overthrown, but that the pope, Julius the Second, who was more like a warrior chief than a peaceful minister of religion, finding that the Venetians were inclined to submit to him, provided they were relieved from their foreign enemies, broke off his alliance with the French king, and united with the Venetians to expel him from Italy. Louis was defeated at the battle of Ravenna, fought on Easter Sunday, 1512, and the exiled family of Sforza was restored to the throne of Milan.

Pope Julius the Second was now very anxious to free Italy from all foreign domination, and through his influence the Medici recovered their authority at Florence. Pietro was dead, but his two brothers, and several others of the family, returned to their native city, after an exile of eighteen years; but they came back with fortunes almost ruined, and Guiliano, one of the sons of the magnificent Lorenzo, instead of being the benefactor of his country, was driven to have recourse to oppressive means of raising money by levying contributions on the people. His brother Giovanni, who had been made a cardinal during the life of his father, was elected to the papal throne on the death of Pope Julius the Second, when he assumed the title of Leo the Tenth, and was as much distinguished for his love of the fine arts, as his illustrious father had been.

The number of celebrated poets, painters, and architects, who flourished in Italy during his reign, has caused that period to be distinguished as "the age of Leo the Tenth," who expended a large portion of the revenues of the church in the encouragement of art and literature. Among the great men of the time was the elegant and accomplished painter Raphael, who was employed by the pope to superintend the interior decorations of St. Peter's church, which was then re-building, and is the most magnificent structure of modern ages, being very much larger than the grand mosque of Santa Sophia at Constantinople, and even than our own St. Paul's at London. The great dome was constructed under the superintendence of Michael Angelo, who was chief architect of St. Peter's for seventeen years after the death of Leo the Tenth. This great artist was another distinguished ornament of the age, and we may also mention

the well-known names of Titian, Correggio, Tasso, and Ariosto.

A curious anecdote is told of Ariosto, whose poetry had made his name famous throughout all Italy. He was appointed governor of a fortress among the Apennines, and being of a grave and contemplative disposition, he wandered, one day, very far beyond his castle, and was in consequence taken prisoner by some brigands, who, being aware that he was the governor, carried him off in the hope of getting a large ransom for his release; but when they learned that he was the author of a famous poem called "*Orlando Furioso*," they conducted him back to the castle in safety, saying they had too much respect for his talents, to offer him the slightest injury. I cannot vouch for the truth of this story, which speaks as much for the good taste of the robbers as for the abilities of the poet; but it is very certain, that many of the banditti that infested the country at that period, were men of refined taste and high education, some of whom had, perhaps, been banished from their native cities; and others had chosen to join companies of adventurers, rather than live under the government of some tyrannical usurper.

The whole kingdom of Naples, but more particularly the wild country of Calabria, was overrun with brigands, after the death of the good Alfonso; and even to the present time, the Calabrians have retained their ferocity and lawless habits.

The reign of Leo the Tenth is remarkable for the commencement of that great revolution in the church, known by the name of the Reformation. The seeds of this great event had no doubt been sown a very long time previously, so that any cause might have sufficed to

bring matters to a crisis, as well as that to which it is usually attributed, namely the privilege of selling indulgences granted by the pope to certain persons in Germany. An indulgence was only a license from the pope about ceremonial matters, such as eating flesh in Lent, or paying money instead of performing penance.

These licenses or indulgences were instituted in the time of the Crusades, and given as a recompense for services performed in the Holy Land; but in later times, they were bestowed on such as gave money for any religious purposes enjoined by the pope. Julius the Second granted indulgences to those who contributed towards the building of St. Peter's church; and as Leo the Tenth was very desirous of carrying forward that great work, and had exhausted his treasury by his liberality towards artists and men of letters; he had recourse to a more extensive sale of indulgences, for the purpose of raising funds to proceed with the building. It is probable that many of those who were entrusted to execute this mission, performed their task in a very improper manner, and thus afforded an opportunity to such as were disaffected towards the church of Rome, to preach against some of its doctrines, and to call in question the right of the pope to sell indulgences at all.

Martin Luther was the first to speak publicly on the subject, and to spread those opinions which caused the Christian church to be divided into the two great sects of Catholics and Protestants, and gave rise to long civil wars in many countries.

The greatest sovereigns reigning in Europe, at this time, were Henry the Eighth, of England; Francis the First, of France; and Charles the Fifth, king of Spain and emperor of Germany. Francis succeeded to the

throne of France, on the death of Louis the Twelfth, in 1515; and being ambitious of recovering the duchy of Milan, he made speedy preparations for invading that territory, which was then governed by Maximilian Sforza. The Swiss, who had been the means of restoring the duke of Milan to his throne, considered themselves bound in honour to support him against his enemies; therefore they took possession of all the passes of the Alps, through which they expected the French would enter Italy; but as Francis was aware of their movements, he took another road, and had nearly reached Milan, when the Swiss descended from the mountains to give him battle.

This engagement, which took place at Marignano, a village not far from Milan, is noted as being one of the most furious and obstinate of the battles recorded in the history of modern times. The brave Swiss were defeated; the duke abdicated, on condition of receiving a handsome pension for his support from the king of France; and the whole duchy of Milan thus fell once more under the dominion of the French.

Not long after this conquest, Charles the Fifth, who was already king of Spain and the Two Sicilies, was elected emperor of Germany, in consequence of the death of his grandfather, the emperor Maximilian. He immediately formed a league with the pope against the French king, who was very soon compelled to abandon his new conquest, and another of the Sforzas was proclaimed duke of Milan; but he was a sovereign only in name, for the emperor looked upon the duchy as his own, and the duke found himself quite unable to protect his unhappy subjects from the insults of the Spanish and German troops who were quartered in the city.

Just at this time Leo the Tenth died, and a native of the Netherlands, who had formerly been tutor to the emperor, was appointed to succeed him, and assumed the title of Adrian the Sixth. He was a man eminently endowed with all Christian virtues, but he had not energy sufficient to rule the church and state in these difficult times; besides which, he became unpopular by his frugal habits and simple manners, which offered a contrast to the haughty demeanour of Julius the Second, and the regal magnificence of Leo the Tenth, whose court vied in splendour with that of any sovereign of Europe, and who dispensed his treasures with an unsparing hand.

Now the people thought that the pope ought to live in a style of grandeur, and did not consider it a merit in their new ruler to practise a strict economy in his household, that he might devote the church revenues to such purposes as he thought more proper than keeping a sumptuous table, and spending vast sums on works of art, for which he certainly had not much taste. He also attempted to check the extravagant habits of the people of Rome, who were always noted for their love of pleasure; and he abolished many offices at the court, because they entailed unnecessary expenses; so that many fine gentlemen who had held employments, where they had little to do, and were largely paid, found themselves dismissed suddenly from their lucrative posts; and were accordingly dissatisfied.

In the midst of these discontents, the plague broke out at Rome, and soon reduced that city to as miserable a condition as those that were suffering from the war, which was still going on in the Milanese territories; and the evil was increased by the mistaken piety of the pope, who held it sinful to adopt precautionary measures against

any calamity with which the Almighty saw fit to afflict his people; forgetting, perhaps, that the same power which sends the evil sends also the remedy. This pope died in less than two years after his elevation to the papal chair, when the cardinals made choice of Giulio de Medici, a nephew of Leo the Tenth. Giuliano, the brother of Leo, had died at Florence a few years before the death of that pontiff, and was succeeded in the government of the Florentine state by his son Lorenzo, who received the title of duke of Urbino from the pope, and married a young lady related to the royal family of France, named Magdalene de la Tour d'Auvergne. The duke died about two years after his marriage, leaving an only daughter, the celebrated Catherine de Medici, queen of France. His brother, the cardinal de Medici, was then made governor of Florence, and retained that dignity till he was elevated to the papal throne on the death of Adrian, under the title of Clement the Seventh, as just stated, his place at Florence being supplied by another member of his family.

Nothing could be more wretched than the state of Italy at this period. Rome had been desolated by the plague; Genoa, one of the richest commercial cities of Europe, had been stormed and pillaged by the imperial troops, and its great merchants entirely ruined. The soldiers of the emperor were living at free quarters in all the states of the Church; and parties of brigands roamed about the country in every direction. The army of Charles was composed chiefly of Spaniards, who were naturally ferocious, and as they were seldom paid by the emperor, they extorted money by all sorts of cruel means from the miserable inhabitants of the towns in which they were stationed, some of whom were shut up in the cellars of their own houses, where they were kept almost with-

out food, while others were tortured in various ways, in the hope of making them confess where they had secreted their treasures. The excessive barbarity of the Spaniards may be partly attributed to the mode of warfare they had been adopting among the uncivilised natives of America, which was, at that period, the grand theatre of Spanish adventure. A Spanish chief, named Cortez, completed the conquest of the great empire of Mexico, in the same year that Leo the Tenth died; and Pizarro, the enterprising conqueror and ruler of Peru, was at this very time a private soldier in Italy, with many others who subsequently distinguished themselves both by their courage and cruelty in the newly-discovered world.

One of the most calamitous events that occurred during the wars in Italy, was the sack of Rome by the Imperial army, under the following circumstances: Charles the Fifth, having sent an army to invade the south of France, in 1524, succeeded in taking Toulon and other places. His troops, however, were repulsed in an attack on Marseilles, and obliged to retreat across the Alps, with considerable loss. The French king, Francis, at the head of a superior body of forces, pursued the Germans into Italy, and having reconquered the Milanese territory, laid siege to Pavia, and reduced the garrison to the utmost extremities. The emperor had at this time in his service the constable de Bourbon, a celebrated general, who had been exiled from France through the jealousy and revenge of the king's mother, an unprincipled woman, of an intriguing disposition. Bourbon, in conjunction with Lannoy, viceroy of Naples, and the marquis di Pescara, another of the imperial generals, attacked the French army besieging Pavia, and obtained a complete victory; and Francis, after he had offered a

brave resistance, and received three wounds, was made a prisoner.

The captive king was sent to Madrid, and there detained for two years, during which the pope, who sometimes sided with Francis, and sometimes with Charles, joined a league formed against the latter by the French, the Venetians, and the duke of Milan; on which the Spaniards laid siege to the castle of St. Angelo, and made the pope prisoner.

During his captivity, another army of Spaniards, Germans, and armed Italian peasants, forced an entrance into Rome, which had never, even in the days of the Goths and Vandals, been subjected to such shocking outrages as were committed by these ferocious troops, to whom the name of barbarians might be more justly applied, than to the rude warriors of ancient times. Every house in the city was broken into and plundered; the churches were despoiled of all their valuable ornaments; the citizens were put to the most horrid tortures to force them into a disclosure of hidden treasures; and little children were dragged from the arms of their mothers, and carried away by the inhuman soldiery, who would not restore them without a ransom, which many of the wretched parents were unable to furnish because they had already been robbed of all they possessed. Such was the melancholy state of Rome for nine months, when a treaty of peace was arranged between the pope and the emperor, and the troops were withdrawn; but they had reduced thousands to beggary; and inflicted wounds on the domestic happiness of families which time could never heal.

About the same period, the city of Genoa was restored to some degree of freedom and prosperity, by a gallant

admiral, named Andrea Doria, who having saved Naples from falling into the hands of the French, demanded, as a reward for his services, that the emperor should restore to the Genoese, his countrymen, their ancient republican form of government, which was granted; and from that time till the invasion of Bonaparte, Genoa enjoyed a great share of liberty, under the direction of a senate, and a doge, elected for ten years.

After the battle of Pavia, the French had been very unsuccessful in Italy, and although Francis, after his liberation, made some further attempts to regain the duchy of Milan, he was obliged at length to abandon the enterprise, and in the year 1529, a treaty of peace was signed, by which he gave up all his claims in Italy to the emperor, who made a triumphant progress through the country, of which he was now the absolute master, and was crowned at Bologna, by the pope, as emperor and king of Lombardy.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE ITALIANS,

IN THE SIXTEENTH AND SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES.

PEACE having been once more restored, the Italians recovered by degrees from the ruin that had been spread around them, and in the course of time, the towns began to assume their former appearance.

For nearly two hundred years after the death of Charles the Fifth, Italy was ruled chiefly by the kings of Spain, who were, by right, the sovereigns of the two Sicilies, and came into possession of Milan on the death of Francesco Sforza, in 1535; who leaving no male heir, the emperor assumed the right of bestowing the duchy, as a vacant fief, on his son Philip, king of Spain; and thus the greater part of Lombardy, with the whole of Sicily and Naples, became Spanish possessions; while the German emperors held supremacy in Tuscany and the Venetian states. The pope was sovereign of his own dominions, that is, of Rome and the states of the Church.

It must be remembered that when Charles the Fifth retired from the cares and fatigues of public life, to pass his latter days in the peaceful seclusion of a cloister, his son Philip succeeded him in Spain, and his brother Ferdinand in Germany, so that the house of Austria was divided into two branches; and it was the Spanish branch of the house of Austria that now ruled in Naples, Sicily, and Milan.

Amid the numerous revolutions that took place in Italy about this time, several new principalities arose, the chief of which were the grand duchy of Tuscany, and the duchy of Parma and Placentia. The sovereignty of Tuscany was bestowed on Cosmo de Medici, with the title of grand duke, by the emperor Maximilian the Second, in 1576; and continued in that illustrious family for a long period.

The cities of Parma and Placentia, which formerly ranked as Italian Republics, but had undergone various revolutions, were added, with the territories belonging to them, to the states of the Church by the warlike Pope

Julius the Second, and erected into a duchy by Paul the Third, who gave them to Louis Farnese, one of his own relations. The new duke was assassinated in consequence of his excessive tyranny; but his son Octavius obtained the duchy, which remained under the dominion of the family of Farnese for nearly two centuries.

It would be an endless task to enumerate all the petty states of Italy, or their princes, some of whom bore the title of duke, others that of marquis, and who generally exercised an absolute authority in their own dominions, although they were all dependent on one or other of the more powerful sovereigns who ruled the destinies of the country.

There were now only four Republics in Italy. These were Genoa, Venice, and Lucca, and the little state of San Marino, which still maintained their ancient form of government, and preserved a much greater degree of liberty than any of the other states, until the invasion of Bonaparte, at the time of the French revolution.

And now let us pause for a while in the narrative of historical events, to speak of the Italians themselves, and their mode of living in the age of comparative tranquillity that followed the wars of Charles the Fifth. The people of Italy were still, as they ever had been, distinguished by their love of the fine arts, which displayed itself in every part of their houses and gardens, which were filled with pictures, statues, vases, and other tasteful ornaments; but they cared very little for the luxuries of the table, which formed no part of their enjoyments.

Still the Italians were by no means indifferent to their own personal comforts, for they had the most delightful summer apartments, carefully screened from the heat of

the sun, paved with marble and cooled with fountains of pure and sparkling waters. The furniture and equipages of the great were of the most costly and elegant description, and those of the middle classes were in general not far inferior. The old fashion of strewing the floors with rushes had long since given place to the much more agreeable mode of covering them with handsome carpets, or forming them of coloured marble, which was at once cool and ornamental.

Most of the nobles lived in the towns, but there were some of the Romans and Venetians who had palaces at a short distance from the city, with magnificent gardens, where they occasionally entertained their friends with some splendid fête.

While the Spaniards maintained their ascendancy in Italy, their habits, manners, and style of dress, were very generally adopted by the Italians, particularly at Naples, where a Spanish viceroy and many noblemen of that nation, resided.

The days of chivalry had long since passed away, so that we no longer hear of the knights and esquires that used to crowd the castle halls; but it was very common, at this period, for the nobles both of Spain and Italy to keep in their pay, and even in their palaces, a number of men called Bravoës, who, it was well known, were assassins by profession and ready to murder any one at the bidding of him who paid them; and in this way private injuries were very often revenged.

Assassination was a very frequent occurrence in all the large towns of Italy, and was usually perpetrated under cover of the night; for the streets were not lighted, and abounded with piazzas, and porticoes, with marble columns, which afforded the ruffians ample means of

concealment, Justice, in such cases, was not to be obtained, as the guilty parties were sometimes persons who possessed the greatest influence in the state; therefore, such dark deeds were seldom enquired into; in addition to which no one liked to interfere in private quarrels, as his own safety might have been endangered by so doing.

The Italians were naturally jealous in disposition. Married ladies were subjected to almost as much restraint as Turkish wives, for they were seldom permitted to walk abroad, except to church, when they were usually attended by an elderly female called a *duenna*, and were obliged to cover their faces either with a mask or a veil, and they also wore a large garment of black silk, known in Spain by the name of *basquina*, which enveloped the whole figure, and made it difficult to distinguish one lady from another in the street.

Educated in convents, they never mixed in society until they were brought home to be married to men whom they had probably never before seen; all marriages being settled by the parents, who often formed matrimonial engagements for their children while they were yet in the cradle. Young ladies were frequently induced to become nuns, either from having imbibed a taste for a life of retirement, or perhaps to avoid a marriage that was disagreeable to them; and sometimes they took the veil in obedience to the wishes of their parents, who, by that means, were spared the necessity of providing their daughters with suitable dowries, without which no female, whatever might be her rank in life, was likely to become a wife. Even among the lower classes, a young man never thought of taking a wife without a marriage portion, which gave rise to a singular

custom at Rome, of making a fund out of the church revenues for portionless damsels, to enable them either to marry or to enter a convent.

These gifts were distributed once a year to 350 young women, who walked to church in procession, all dressed alike in white serge, with linen veils over their heads. Having heard mass, and received the sacrament, they approached the pontiff in pairs, and kneeling at his feet, each was asked whether she chose to be a bride or a nun. All who had lovers, of course, decided upon matrimony; on which his holiness presented them with a little white bag containing fifty crowns; while those who preferred a nunnery, received double that sum, and were crowned with garlands of flowers; but the number of nuns was small, in comparison with that of the brides elect; probably because it was known before hand what maidens were about to be thus provided for; consequently, there were few of them who had not been persuaded to promise to share their little fortunes with some enamoured swains. It was, however, a very excellent charity, and enabled many young people to begin the world in comfort.

At the period of which I am now speaking, Venice was the gayest of all the cities of Italy, and it was there that the carnival was held with the greatest splendour. During this season of merriment, no one thought of any thing but amusement. From morning till night, the streets were filled with music and masqueraders in a variety of fantastic characters. Every body was masked, and one of the frolics in which people indulged was, that of recognising a friend by throwing a handful of sugar-plums in his face. Most ladies were careful to provide themselves with abundance of these missiles,

which they launched in showers from their carriage windows on every gallant who ventured near enough to expose himself to this sportive warfare.

In all the towns of Italy, the whole six weeks of the carnival were spent by high and low in one continued round of amusements. It was the only season when theatrical performances were allowed at Rome, where, as in other cities, they consisted chiefly of pantomimes and ballets, until the year 1624, when the first serious opera was performed at Venice; from which time the opera became the favourite entertainment of the Italians generally.

Even the lower orders among them appear to have had a taste for intellectual enjoyments, for it was not unusual in Rome, and many other cities, to see a crowd gathered round a street orator, who was relating some romance, or tale from real history. The imaginary exploits of the early Roman emperors, formed a favourite theme with many of these historians, who were generally listened to with great delight. There were also poets of the same description, called *Improvvisatori*, who entertained the auditors with extemporaneous verses. The talent of improvising, or speaking in unpremeditated verse, was not uncommon among the Italians, and there were many ladies of high rank, who gained great celebrity for the beauty of these unstudied compositions.

In speaking of Venice, I must not omit to mention the gondolas, which supplied the place of carriages in that city; for Venice being built on several islands, the principal streets are separated from each other by canals, so that the houses can only be approached by water. Almost every gentleman, therefore, kept his own gondola; besides which, there were other boats of this description

that could be hired by those who had none. The gondola is of a lengthened form, of a black colour, and is covered in like a coach, except at that part which is occupied by the rowers or gondoliers. It is also furnished with glass windows. The canals were covered with gondolas during the evening, and the gondoliers beguiled their labour by singing in concert.

These gondoliers were great boxers, and formed a sort of faction in opposition to the lower order of the mechanics in Venice; one party calling themselves Castellani, the other Nicoloti, in reference to the different parts of the city in which they resided; and the battles of these factions were sometimes made a public amusement. On the occasion of the visit of Henry the Third of France, he was entertained with one of these fights, when two hundred champions on each side contended for the possession of a bridge, and it is said the monarch was highly delighted with the battle. On this same occasion the Venetians displayed their unrivalled talent for making confectionary, by laying out a table for the royal guest, and a large party of illustrious persons in the doge's palace, with plates, knives, forks, napkins, goblets, and all the usual furniture for a repast, the whole of which were made of sugar; an ingenious exhibition, certainly, but not much calculated to add to the comfort of the feast.

There was a singular ceremony observed at Venice on the Day of Ascension, called the Marriage of the Adriatic, when the doge, with a vast deal of pomp and parade, went on board his state galley, and threw a ring into the sea; a custom that took its rise in the twelfth century, during the wars of Frederick Barbarossa, when Pope Alexander the Third granted the sovereignty of the

Adriatic Sea to the republic of Venice, in return for services rendered against the emperor. Every year the union of the state with the sea was celebrated with extraordinary magnificence, amid ringing of bells, firing of cannon, illuminations, and all kinds of rejoicings.

The costume of the Venetians, like that of all other nations, varied at different periods, and was sometimes restrained by sumptuary laws. At one time the noblemen were ordered to wear coarse black cloaks; but the young and gay made amends for this restriction, by the richness of their under dress, which they took care to display, by throwing open their cloak. The ladies are described, about the middle of the seventeenth century, as wearing very shapeless dresses, which were not confined at the waist, and to which were attached large hanging sleeves, fastened with bracelets, and knots of ribbon hanging from the shoulders; all the ends ornamented with gold or jewels. They had a singular custom when they went abroad, of mounting themselves upon very high wooden clogs, called choppines, in which it was so difficult to walk, that they had always two female attendants upon whom they might lean, in getting in and out of their gondolas. They also covered themselves entirely with a large veil of yellow gauze, which was thrown over the head, and fell down to the feet, but was transparent enough for the dress and features to be quite visible.

About the end of the seventeenth century, the young nobles were allowed to dress as splendidly as they pleased, and they made use of the privilege to array themselves in suits of gold and silver stuffs, fitted tightly to the shape, with short mantles of satin or velvet, embroidered with gold, or lined and bordered with ermine. They also wore velvet caps, adorned with plumes and jewels, and

swords by their sides. The dress of the senators was a long black robe, and a round black cloth cap, fringed with wool. When the doge went abroad on any public occasion, he had torches carried before him, a folding chair and cushion, as emblems of his dignity; eight silver trumpets, and eight standards; two red, two white, two blue, and two violet; and the order in which they were carried, denoted whether the state was at peace or at war.

The Jews formed a considerable and highly respectable body of people at Venice, where they enjoyed many privileges which in most other countries were denied them. They could study at the universities, and practise as physicians; they were allowed the free exercise of their religion; they carried on a very extensive trade, so that some of the richest merchants of Venice were men of the Hebrew faith; and they had a distinct court of law for the trial of their suits with each other.

The vessels of war belonging to Venice were chiefly galleys, each rowed by ninety-two slaves; the arsenal was the best in Europe, containing docks, rope-yards, naval stores, forges, and lodges for the galleys; and afforded employment to a great number of men.

The country people in the neighbourhood of Venice were, for the most part, employed in the vineyards, and lived in cottages built of reeds. They were poor, but their wants were few; for an Italian peasant was satisfied with a piece of bread and a bunch of grapes, if he could get nothing else. This was one reason why they were in general very idle in many parts of the country, and would spend whole days in lying under the trees.

The inns were mean, dirty, and ill furnished with provisions or accommodations of any kind; and on some

roads, they were not very safe resting-places, as the inn-keepers were not unfrequently in league with the banditti that infested all the mountainous districts; therefore travellers usually sought shelter at the convents, and were always well provided with fire arms. One of the Spanish viceroys of Naples was very active in tracing out the haunts of the brigands, and succeeded in freeing the country around the capital, for a time, from their depredations; but Naples, Calabria, and Sicily, have always been noted for these desperate characters, and are not, even now, entirely free from them.

The dresses and equipages of the nobility at Naples, were all black, according to the Spanish fashion. Naples was a rich and populous city, and the country around was extremely fertile; but the peasants were poor, indolent, and much oppressed by the nobles.

Religious processions were very numerous in all the Italian towns, and were generally conducted with great magnificence, all the chief nobility and clergy attending in their robes of ceremony, accompanied by images splendidly decorated, and a great number of torches. At Genoa, it was customary, on some of these solemn occasions, for the ladies to assemble in the balconies, and scatter flowers over the procession as it passed.

Towards the end of the sixteenth century, the senate of Genoa passed a decree that noblemen might carry on any trade or profession without disparagement to their nobility, provided they did not keep an open shop; therefore, most of them were engaged in traffic of some kind, principally the sale of wine made on their own estates. At Genoa, this could only be sold to the government, which monopolised all the trade in corn and wine, buy-

ing these commodities of the growers, and selling them at a large profit to the inn-keepers, and bakers, who were prohibited from buying of private dealers. But it was not so at Florence, where most gentlemen sold their own wine retail; and so far from thinking it a degradation to do so, frequently hung up a flask at their palace gates, as a sign. The customers, however, were not admitted within the domicile, but made their purchases through a trap-door in the street, which opened into the cellar.

The profits of this trade formed a large portion of the income of many Italian nobles, after the country had been so much impoverished by the wars.

At the period to which I am alluding, Florence was not so opulent a city as it had been in the time of Lorenzo the Magnificent, owing in some measure to the heavy taxes imposed on the citizens by the grand duke, who, being an absolute prince, could levy what taxes he thought proper. The Florentines, therefore, had to pay him a tenth part of their rents, and also a tenth of the money obtained for all houses and lands that were sold; besides which, he claimed eight per cent of every marriage portion, and a duty on all articles of provision. These were very heavy burthens, and far more oppressive than the monopoly of corn and wine at Genoa.

The Italians, at this period, carried on a very extensive trade with Antwerp, then the most considerable commercial city in Europe; the merchants of which sent to all the great towns of Italy, jewels and pearls, English woollen cloth, tapestry, toys, linen, and mercery; whence they obtained in exchange the rich satins and velvets of Genoa; the gold and silver stuffs of Milan and Florence; the mirrors of Venice; the oranges, wine, raw silk, and cotton, of Sicily; besides oil, gum, sulphur, carpets,

various fine colours for dyeing and painting; and many other valuable commodities.

Venice was highly celebrated for its glass manufactories, which long supplied the whole of Europe with looking-glasses and glass for the table. Ferrara was noted for the manufacture of sword-blades, which were held in great repute among the Scottish highlanders, who called their broad-swords Andrew Ferraras, Andrea being the name of the best maker.

The grand discovery or invention of this period was that of the telescope, generally attributed to the astronomer Galileo, a native of Florence, who flourished under the auspices of the grand duke Cosmo de Medici the Second, in the early part of the seventeenth century. The original inventor, however, of this wonderful instrument, to which we are indebted for much delightful instruction respecting the heavenly bodies, seems to have been a Dutch spectacle maker, named Jansen, whose children being at play, one day, in his shop, set up two pieces of glass, such as are used for common spectacles, at a little distance from each other, and looking through them, saw, to their great surprise, that the church steeple, which was, in reality, a long way off, appeared very near, and much larger than it ever looked before. They immediately communicated this discovery to their father, who, seeing that it might be turned to some advantage, prepared several pieces of glass of the same form, which he fixed into tubes, and thus produced several small telescopes, one of which he sent as a present to Maurice, Prince of Orange.

This circumstance being mentioned to Galileo, who at that time enjoyed a high degree of consideration at the court of Tuscany, as professor of mathematics, he

turned his attention to the subject, and constructed a large telescope of sufficient power to be applied to astronomical purposes. By the aid of this wonderful instrument, he discovered that the surface of the moon is rough and uneven, like that of the earth; he found that the milky way, instead of being merely a white streak in the sky, is composed of millions of stars invisible to the naked eye; and that the planet Jupiter is lighted by four moons, which, in honour of the grand duke of Tuscany, he called the Medician stars. These and other discoveries, he published to the astonished world.

But his efforts to enlighten mankind had nearly proved his own ruin, for he was cited before the Inquisition at Rome, to answer a charge of heresy, for teaching that the earth is a moveable body, and that the sun forms the centre of the universe; a belief which, at that time, was considered contrary to the doctrines of the Christian church. He was confined for a short time, and obliged to make a sort of recantation; but through the interference of his friend and patron, the grand duke Ferdinand the Second, Galileo was released, and lived to a great age. However, from the constant use of the telescope in the night air, he became blind, about three years before his death, which happened in 1642.

ITALY,

UNDER THE DOMINION OF SPAIN.

DURING the period that elapsed between the wars of the

emperor Charles and those of Bonaparte, no material changes happened in Italy, although many conspiracies were formed, at various times, for the purpose of effecting revolutions in several of the states. The first plot was at Genoa, soon after the republican government had been restored by the emperor, at the solicitation of Andrea Doria.

The nobles of Genoa were jealous of the influence possessed by the Dorias in the state, and were also displeased at their attachment to the princes of the house of Austria. One of these discontented nobles was Fiesco, count of Lavagna, the chief of one of the most ancient and illustrious families of Genoa, who thought that he ought to fill the station occupied by Andrea Doria at the head of the republic. It was not so much the jealousy entertained of the aged Admiral who had really rendered a service to his country, as of his nephew Gianettino, an arrogant youth, whose haughty behaviour towards the ancient nobility caused him to have many enemies.

The elevation of this young man to a share in the government, gave great displeasure to the citizens generally, but more particularly to count Fiesco, who looked upon it as a usurpation of his own rights; and, in concert with several other noblemen, formed a conspiracy, the chief object of which was, the destruction of the whole family of the Dorias. The count was only twenty-two years of age, and lately married to a very amiable and beautiful young lady, who was devotedly attached to him. He possessed several large fiefs and strong castles among the mountains; and had numerous vassals and bands of brigands entirely devoted to his service; and he had made himself exceedingly popular by his courteous manners towards the lower orders of the people.

The conspirators laid their plans, and fixed a certain night for their intended attack on the palace. The fatal evening arrived, and the count, after partaking of a sumptuous entertainment with the most distinguished of his friends, went to his wife's apartments to impart his designs, which he had hitherto kept a secret from her. The noble lady, equally grieved and terrified, threw herself at his feet, and implored him to abandon so dangerous an undertaking; but the ill-fated young man was firm to his purpose, and bade her adieu, saying, "We either meet no more, or you shall see all Genoa at your feet." He then put on his armour, and went to join his friends on board the galleys in the harbour, which he meant to seize; when, in crossing from one vessel to another, his foot slipped off the plank, and he fell into the water, unperceived by his companions; for the weight of his coat of mail caused him to sink instantly, and he rose no more. In the mean time, several parties of the conspirators, amounting to about five hundred armed men, had been sent in various directions, with instructions to take possession of the city gates, and other important posts.

The news of the sedition being conveyed to the palace, Gianettino Doria went out at the head of a few armed men, thinking it was only a slight tumult that might easily be appeased; but he was almost immediately killed, and his uncle only avoided a similar fate, by making his escape from the palace through a secret passage.

The insurgents had expected to be joined by their leader Fiesco, without whom they knew not how to proceed; but when they found he did not come, they began to lose courage; and as soon as his death was made known, the greatest consternation prevailed, and each of

them now only thought of providing for his own safety. Many of the principal conspirators were seized and beheaded. The whole of the unfortunate family of Fiesco suffered for the ambition of their chief, by banishment and the confiscation of their estates; while the venerable Andrea Doria was restored to his high office.

From this time, the government of Genoa was highly aristocratical, that is, it was in the hands of certain noble families, whose names were inscribed in a register called the golden book, and none but these had a right to sit in the council. The doge, who had no authority beyond that of chief magistrate, was elected every two years from among the senators, and this form of government lasted until the invasion of Bonaparte.

About the time of Fiesco's conspiracy, which took place during the pontificate of Paul the Third, was founded, at Rome, the famous society of the Jesuits, by a Spaniard named Loyola, who, with nine other pious devotees, entered into a solemn compact to spend their whole lives in promoting the Roman Catholic faith in every part of the world. They bound themselves by a vow to live on alms, and to undertake readily and cheerfully any missions to which they should be appointed by the superior whom they should elect. All the property they might acquire, was to be employed entirely for religious purposes, but more especially to institute and support colleges for educating youth in the principles of the church of Rome; so that a man of fortune, on becoming a Jesuit, was obliged to give up all he possessed for the service of the order, which consequently grew rich as a body, although each member was poor as an individual.

The pope at first refused to sanction this new order; but when the proposers offered to take another vow of

implicit obedience to himself and his successors, and to do whatever he should command, for the service of religion, even at the risk of their lives, he gave his permission, seeing how advantageous it might be to have a body of men exclusively devoted to the interests of the ancient church, at a time when the Reformation was spreading far and wide.

Many of the German states had already adopted the Protestant faith. Henry the Eighth had lately suppressed the monasteries, and overturned the authority of the pope, in England, while in several other countries of Europe the Reformed religion predominated. The new society being thus sanctioned, Loyola was elected superior, and established a house for the brethren at Rome, whence he sent out missionaries into many parts of the world, to convert infidels, and to preach against heresy.

The rapid increase of the numbers, wealth, and influence of the Jesuits astonished the whole world, and in course of time led to the suppression of their order in many countries; but they have been restored in some places, and still exist, though not with the same power as formerly. At one period, they had landed possessions and colleges in all quarters of the globe, and ruled in sovereignty the whole province of Paraguay in South America.

Of all the Italian states, Venice still continued to be the most wealthy and powerful. The Venetians had suffered much by the wars of the league of Cambray, but they employed the latter part of the sixteenth century in rebuilding their walls, reviving their manufactures, and restoring their agriculture to its former flourishing condition.

The greatest calamity they sustained during this period, was the loss of the beautiful island of Cyprus, which was taken by the Turkish sultan, Selim the second, in the year 1570. It had belonged to the republic two hundred years, and was the most valuable of all the Venetian possessions in the Mediterranean, on account of its extreme fertility, and the quantity of wine and wool that it produced. The Venetians made an effort to recover this island, and were assisted by the Spaniards, whose commander, Don John of Austria, gained a great naval victory over the Turks, and destroyed their fleet in the Bay of Lepanto. This victory was celebrated throughout all Christendom, as a glorious triumph of the Christians over the Saracens.

At Venice, it was signalised by solemn processions, fireworks, illuminations, and all kinds of rejoicings during the space of four whole days; and on this occasion, the city companies, especially the silk and woollen manufacturers, and German merchants, paraded the streets with splendid pageants, and gave balls each evening, in booths erected for the purpose, and brilliantly illuminated outside.

But all this joy did not bring back to the Venetians the beautiful island they had lost; for the government found it so inconvenient to continue the war, that a peace was soon afterwards concluded with the Turks, who, by its terms, were acknowledged sole and undisputed masters of Cyprus.

From this time, to the breaking out of a fresh war with the Turks, about seventy years afterwards, the republic of Venice remained at peace with foreign powers, and enjoyed a high degree of consideration among the states of Europe.

The government was rich enough to assist Henry the Fourth of France with large sums of money, while he was fighting for his crown; and when he obtained it, Venice was one of the first of the European states that acknowledged his title; and in addition to doing so, befriended him in a more substantial manner, by sending an ambassador to his court, with instructions to commit to the flames, in his presence, certain documents containing his obligations to pay these debts; on which the merry monarch observed that he had never warmed himself at so pleasant a fire before. This prince, being divorced from his first wife, married a lady of the Medici family, Mary, niece of the grand duke of Tuscany, who was the second queen of France of that noble house.

Nothing very remarkable occurred in the affairs of Venice, until the year 1617, when a mysterious plot was partly discovered, that appeared to have been laid with the object of putting an end to the existing government; and was believed to have originated with the Spanish authorities in Italy. This is the conspiracy celebrated in the English tragedy of "Venice Preserved;" but the facts are entirely misrepresented in that drama.

There were three Spanish noblemen in Italy, the duke D'Ossuna, viceroy of Naples; Don Pedro de Toledo, governor of Milan; and the marquis de Bedmar, ambassador at Venice; and these three nobles were said to have concerted a plan to destroy the republic of Venice, with a view of increasing their own power in Italy, as well as that of their master the king of Spain. This plot was revealed to the Council of Ten by a French pirate, named Jacques Pierre, who had absconded from Naples, and obtained employment in the docks at Venice; and he also confessed to the council that he was himself

a party concerned in the plot; and that his real business at Venice was to enlist secretly in the service of the viceroy, a number of the bravoës, who at that time formed a regular part of the establishment of most rich men. According to his own statement, he and another Frenchman, named Jaffier, were to head these assassins, who, on a certain day appointed, were to break into the palace when the council was sitting, and massacre the doge and all the senators.

The reason why Pierre made this disclosure, was never known; and it is even doubtful whether any conspiracy ever really existed, or whether the rumour of such a plot was a contrivance between the duke D'Ossuna and the government of Venice, to cover a design of restoring the ancient independence of Italy, by driving the Spaniards from Lombardy, and converting Naples into a kingdom, of which the crown was to be bestowed on the viceroy. In that case Pierre was himself deceived both by the duke and the Venetian senate, who pretended to believe his story; but these speculations are of little importance compared with the dreadful events that followed.

After ten months had gone by, several bodies, amongst whom was that of Pierre, were one morning seen hanging in the open space before the palace, called St. Mark's place; and it was soon whispered abroad that a great many persons had been drowned in the grand canal during the night; and others strangled in the state prisons. Day after day, more executions took place in St. Mark's square, to the great horror of the people, who were lost in wonder as to the cause of them; nor were any reasons ever assigned for these acts, which fearfully illustrate the terrible power possessed at that time by the Venetian government, which could thus, without question

or explanation, take away the lives of so many of its subjects. In fact, people were afraid to speak of its proceedings, for spies were employed by the Council of Ten; and there stood, at the foot of the giant's stairs, the famous Lions of St. Mark, with gaping mouths, for the reception of anonymous communications, by which means any one might be charged with a crime against the state, without knowing who was the accuser.

In 1645, the Turks invaded the island of Candia, which belonged to Venice, and where not less than thirty noble Venetian families resided. This long war, which lasted twenty-five years, was so expensive, that every citizen was obliged to contribute three fourths of his plate to be coined into money; and titles of nobility were sold to commoners by the government; a measure that was highly displeasing to many of the proud Venetian nobles; but the treasury was exhausted, and there were no other means of raising funds to carry on the war.

At last, after much misery and bloodshed, Candia was given up to the Turks, on condition that all its inhabitants should be allowed to depart; and they were brought away from the island with their property, on board the Venetian fleet. The nobles were allowed to settle at Venice, with all the rights of citizens; but the rest of the exiled population were distributed through the province of Istria, on allotments of land granted for their support.

In a subsequent war with the sultan, Achmet the Third, the Venetians lost the Morea; and being no longer in a condition to continue hostilities, signed a treaty of peace with the Turks, in 1718, which was not again broken. But the power and prosperity of this

once great republic was at an end. Its treasures were exhausted by the wars; its manufactures and trade declining; and the government was as tyrannical as ever. Yet from the peace of 1718, to the French revolution, Venice was the gayest city of all Italy, as will be seen when I again allude to the manners of the people.

I have yet to notice another insurrection which occurred at Naples about twenty years previously to that of Pierre, at Venice, and very well known as the revolt of Massaniello. It was in the year 1647, while Naples was under the government of the Spaniards, that great discontent was caused among the lower orders of the people, in consequence of a tax levied by the viceroy on fruit, which in summer was the principal food of the poor.

Every time the viceroy appeared in the market-place he was assailed with the shrill cries of the women and children, and the deep murmurings of the men, until he promised to abolish the tax, which, it appears, he intended to do, but was persuaded by some interested persons to break his word; and this was the occasion of the mischief which ensued. It happened thus.

There was a young fisherman at Naples, named Thomas Aniello, more usually called Massaniello, who had made himself a great favourite amongst those of his own class by his lively manners, courage, and activity. About the time of the disturbance respecting the fruit tax, Massaniello's wife was imprisoned for being detected in smuggling a little meal on which the duty had not been paid; and a fine was also imposed for the offence, which her husband could not pay without selling every article of furniture his little cottage contained. Indignant at being treated with so much severity, he laid a plan with some

of his companions to raise a tumult in the market-place, while the revenue officers were collecting the taxes from the market people, to drive them away, and plunder the office where the duties were received.

This plot was successfully executed, and the rioters were speedily joined by thousands of the populace, who forced their way into the palace, of which they took entire possession, while the viceroy fled for shelter to a neighbouring convent.

Anxious to restore order, he offered to abolish several of the taxes, but chiefly that upon fruit; and to indemnify Massaniello for the loss of his furniture, by granting him a pension; but the young man, elated with success, was now full of ambition, and bent on restoring the independence of his country; therefore, he refused the offer, and being supported by the great mass of the people, he assumed the authority of chief ruler, and by his orders several noblemen were seized and beheaded.

Dreadful tumults ensued, in which many lives were lost, and several palaces set on fire; while Massaniello, at the head of a numerous band, rode about the city and issued his commands as a sovereign prince. He even held a conference with the viceroy, who, for the sake of putting a stop to the outrages of the mob, agreed to let him retain the government, and signed a treaty to that effect.

Massaniello now appeared in a splendid dress of cloth of silver, his cap adorned with jewels and feathers, and mounted on a horse richly caparisoned. But although he was brave, and perhaps really actuated by patriotic motives, he had not sufficient self command to exercise the power given to him with the requisite moderation, but conducted himself in so absolute a manner that his own

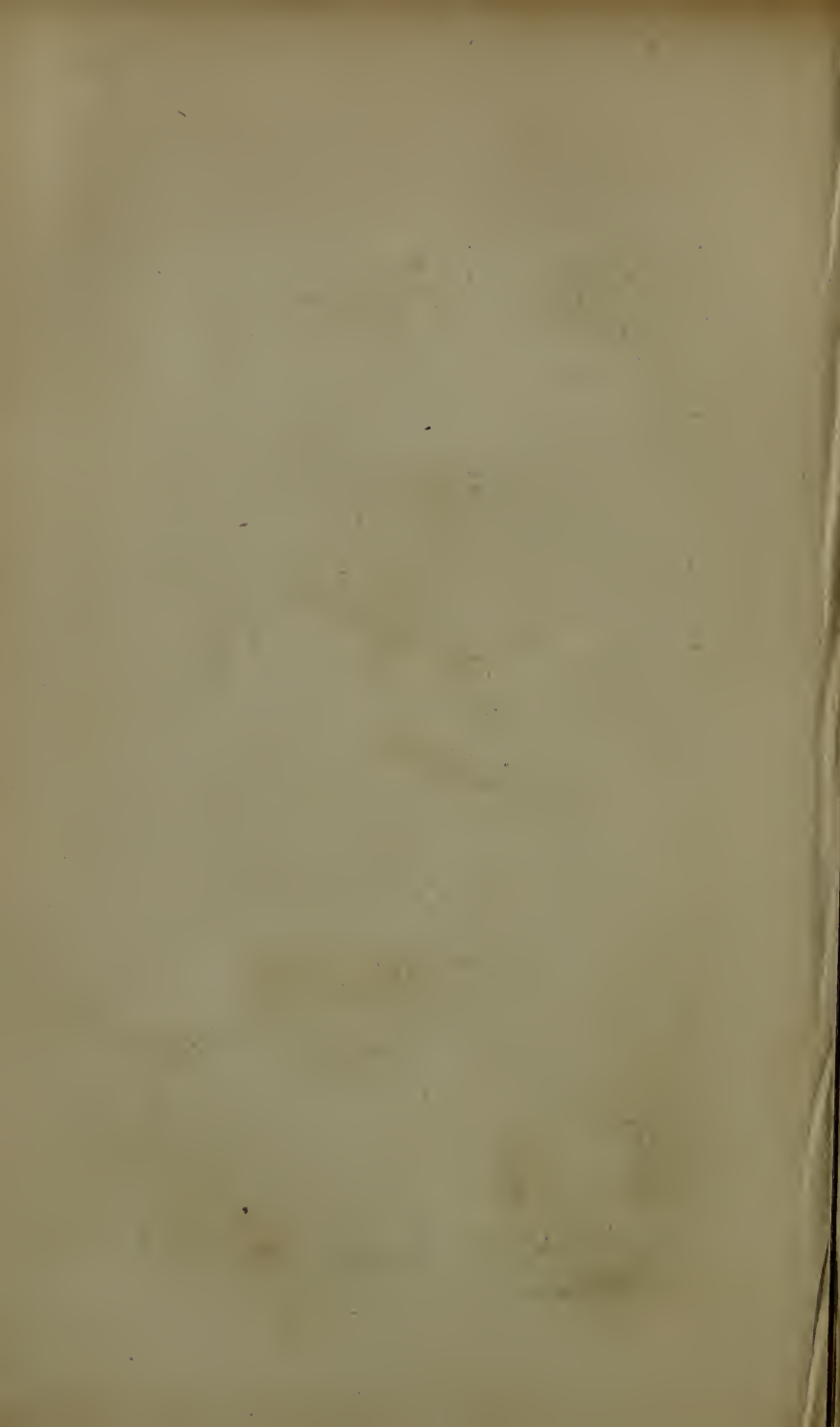


Painted by Gilbert.

MASSANIELLO HARANGUING THE POPULACE.

Page 126.

Engraved by Davenport.



party turned against him, and he was assassinated ten days after his extraordinary elevation.

From this time till the year 1713, when a revolution occurred in the government, there were frequent rebellions in Naples against the Spanish authorities, but none of equal importance to that which I have just related.

At last, the kings of Spain lost their Neapolitan dominions from the following causes. Charles the Second having died without children, the crown of Spain was disputed between two princes, Charles the archduke of Austria, and Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis the Fourteenth. A long war followed, which was carried on, partly in the north of Italy, where several battles were fought by the celebrated prince Eugene, against the French and Spaniards.

At length the quarrel was terminated by the death of the emperor, Joseph the First, when the archduke Charles, who was his brother, succeeded to the imperial throne of Germany, and the war was given up, because those princes who had supported his pretensions to the throne of Spain, while he was only archduke of Austria, had no desire to unite the crowns of Spain and Germany, as such a union would have placed too much power in the hands of one prince; therefore, Charles was induced to resign his claim to the Spanish succession, on condition that his rival, Philip, should give up all his dominions in Italy, consisting of Naples, Milan, and some territories on the shores of Tuscany; and thus the kingdom of Naples passed from the Spaniards to the house of Austria; and at the same time the island of Sicily was separated from it, and given to the duke of Savoy, Victor Amadeus, who afterwards became king of Sardinia.

Soon after this arrangement, Philip, king of Spain, married Elizabeth Farnese, who was heiress to the duchy of Parma and Placentia, and also to the grand duchy of Tuscany, if it should so happen that the reigning duke John Gaston de Medici, should die without children.

This union alarmed the emperor of Germany, who did not wish to see the Spaniards again powerful in Italy; therefore, he made an alliance with England, Holland, and France, for the purpose of securing their support in case the king of Spain should acquire the two duchies in right of his wife, and being thus re-established in Italy, should attempt to recover the kingdom of Naples. He was, perhaps, also afraid that the duke of Savoy might be induced to aid in such a scheme, since he persuaded him to exchange the island of Sicily for that of Sardinia; and as the latter was not so valuable a possession as the former, he added to it the duchy of Montferrat, with the title of king of Sardinia.

This policy, however, failed in its object, for a new war broke out in Europe respecting the crown of Poland, in which the new king of Sardinia, and the kings of Spain, and France, took one side, while the emperor joined the other party; so that the Spaniards and Austrians were again at war, and Italy was the principal scene of their hostilities.

The result was, that the king of Spain regained both Naples and Sicily; and in 1735, his son, Don Carlos, was crowned king of those countries, under the title of king of the two Sicilies. This war produced, also, a revolution in Tuscany; for the king of Poland, Stanislaus, being dethroned, his son-in-law, Louis the Fifteenth, of France, was desirous of giving him the duchy of Lorraine to compensate for the loss of his kingdom.

Now this duchy of Lorraine was the inheritance of a young prince, who was about to be married to the young and beautiful daughter of the emperor, and it was necessary to dispossess him of it, before it could be bestowed on king Stanislaus. It was, therefore, intimated to the emperor, that if duke Francis of Lorraine would not give up his duchy, the king of France would not make peace; on which the emperor, who found it very inconvenient to continue the war, persuaded the duke to part with his territory of Lorraine, and receive in exchange, the grand duchy of Tuscany, which had just become vacant by the death of the last of the Medici.

Nothing would have induced the young duke to give up his partrimonial estates, but the fear of losing his promised bride, which he was given to understand would be the inevitable consequence of his refusal; therefore, he reluctantly bade adieu to Lorraine, married the princess Maria Theresa, and became grand duke of Tuscany. To make these changes the more intelligible, it ought to be mentioned that Don Carlos, who, in right of his mother, had some claim to the duchy of Tuscany, consented to cede his right, in consideration of being left in quiet possession of Naples and Sicily.

Don Carlos succeeded to the throne of Spain in 1759, when he bestowed the crown of the two Sicilies on his third son Ferdinand, a peaceful and amiable prince, who was very much beloved by the people. He married a daughter of Maria Theresa, then empress of Germany, and was king of the two Sicilies at the time of the French invasion.

A great alteration was observable in the manners of the Italians, after the Spaniards had lost their influence over the country. The ladies were no longer watched

and guarded as they used to be; the people were in general more gay, and at Naples they had discarded their sombre black dresses and equipages, and vied with each other in displaying the finest carriages and most sumptuous apparel. The love of show was so great in this city, that the nobles had their carriages made with very large windows, that their costly dresses might be seen to advantage; and those who could afford it, would have four footmen, in rich liveries, behind their carriages, and sometimes two, running in front.

The houses of the great were furnished with the same regard to splendour; and even persons of moderate fortune would have an elegant equipage, a fine house, and a numerous train of domestics; but the servants in Italy were kept at much less expense than in England, for they were content with very inconsiderable wages, and provided their own food and lodging.

The Jesuits were the chief merchants of Naples at this period, and traded to a great extent in wine and other produce of their vast lands in Apulia, which territory belonged almost entirely to them.

The monks of various orders formed a very large proportion of the Neapolitan population, and mixed now in society with much more freedom than they used to do in former times. Many of them practised surgery and physic, for the benefit of the poor; and to every convent was attached a dispensary, where advice and medicines were administered gratuitously; besides this, soup and bread were given away every day at the convent doors, to all who were in want; so that however poor the lower orders might have been, they were in no danger of starving.

The poorest class in Naples was that of the Lazaroni,

men without any homes or fixed occupations, who waited about the streets ready to execute any little commissions for any body, such as carrying letters or messages or holding gentlemen's horses, for which they expected but a very trifling recompense. These poor fellows, of whom there are still many thousands in Naples, sleep at night under the piazzas, or any public shelter which they may find convenient. Some have wives and children, who inhabit miserable huts in the suburbs, or caves dug in a neighbouring mountain.

The peasantry of Sicily and Naples were still in vassalage to the great lords, who preserved most of the ancient feudal rights over their tenants; but there were many Neapolitan counts, marquisses, and even princes, who had no estates, as titles were far more common than fortunes in every part of Italy. The mode of living, even among the nobility at Naples, was extremely frugal as regarded domestic arrangement in-doors, the fashion being to economize at home for the sake of making a great display abroad; and in this the nobles were imitated, as far as circumstances would allow, by the middle classes, of whom there were distinct grades, the lawyers being considered as the highest class among the citizens.

After the suppression of the Jesuits in 1773, the government of Naples decreed that the monks should no longer be bound by their vows, but should be at liberty to quit the cloister whenever they chose, and there were many who availed themselves of this privilege to return to the world, and adopt another mode of life. The greater number, however, remained as they were, except that they entered more into the gaieties of the world, and might be seen at the theatres and other places of amusement.

The marriage of the Spanish king of Naples with an Austrian princess was a happy circumstance, as it tended to preserve peace between the two nations, both of which had large possessions in Italy at this time, as the greater part of Lombardy was under the dominion of Austria, and was governed by the archduke Ferdinand, one of the sons of Maria Theresa, who also became duke of Modena, by his marriage with the heiress of that duchy.

In Tuscany, the grand duke was succeeded, in 1765, by his son Leopold, called the good duke of Tuscany, because his government was so beneficent, that the people had never been so happy as while he ruled over them. He made many regulations for the better administration of justice; diminished the taxes; and abolished many feudal rights that had hitherto been claimed by the lords of estates over the peasantry; he protected the poor from the oppressions of the rich; and no one who had grievances to complain of, was ever refused admittance to his presence. He gave great encouragement to arts and manufactures, and was, in every respect, an excellent, although an absolute prince. He had reigned twenty-five years, when, by the death of his brother Joseph, he became emperor of Germany, and his second son, Ferdinand, was appointed grand duke of Tuscany in the year 1790.

At Rome, from the time of Paul the Third to the French invasion, no less than twenty-nine pontiffs were elevated to the papal throne. Some of these ruled with mildness, and were much beloved; others were very arbitrary, and sometimes, by their severity, occasioned tumults in the city. One of these was Paul the Fourth, a proud man, ambitious of ruling over other princes as his predecessors had done; but the state of society was

altogether changed, and the pope had no longer much authority out of his own dominions, except in such affairs of the church as came under his jurisdiction; nor could he expect any homage from the rulers of other states beyond that which was due to his sacerdotal character.

Paul the Fourth was disliked at Rome, because he made the people pay very heavy taxes, and augmented the power of the Inquisition; in consequence of which, the prisons of that tribunal were filled with people suspected of heresy. Yet he was often strictly just in his actions; as a proof of which, he disgraced and banished, for bad conduct, three of his nephews, whom he had raised to very high offices. These were the marquess of Montebello, the duke of Pagliano, and the cardinal Caraffa, all of whom had behaved in a manner very unbecoming their rank; and as soon as the pope died, they excited public tumults at Rome, where the lower orders of the people set fire to the court of the Inquisition, after having broken open the dungeons, and released the prisoners. Much mischief was done in the course of this tumult; so that the next pope, Pius the Fourth, although he granted a general pardon, considered it necessary to except the leaders, who were all three beheaded.

One of the most distinguished of the Roman pontiffs was Gregory the Thirteenth, who was elected in the year 1572. He was very much beloved on account of his mild government, which was injurious in one respect, as not being calculated to check the depredations of the numerous banditti that infested the country around Rome, and even the capital itself. It was Gregory the Thirteenth who made that alteration in the calendar,

which is called the New Style. Until this period, the precise length of the year had never been exactly settled, so far as regarded some odd minutes at the end of it, which, by miscalculation, had in the course of many centuries, brought the days out of their proper places; wherefore, Gregory ordered that the dates should be altered on a certain day, to bring them right again. This new mode of reckoning was adopted in all Catholic countries, in the year 1582, when ten days were entirely omitted in the calendar, so that the day which used to be the eleventh of the month, became the first.

It was long before this alteration of the style was introduced into the Protestant states, which was a serious inconvenience in many cases. For instance, the established religion of some of the German cities was Protestant, of others Catholic; so that in one town the inhabitants were celebrating their Christmas, and other public festivals, ten days before those of another; till, at last, it was found necessary to make the change universal.

Gregory the Thirteenth was a great friend to the Jesuits, for whom he built and endowed a college at Rome, and twenty-seven seminaries in different parts of the world, many of them in heathen countries, where the fathers taught the Christian religion among the people. It is said they did so much good in the Japan islands, that the king of Japan sent ambassadors to Rome to express his gratitude to the pope for the benefits that had been conferred on himself and his people. Gregory ordered public rejoicings at Rome on account of the conversion of the rich and populous empire of Japan to the Christian faith; but the festivities were cut short by the sudden death of the pope, who

had reigned over the church of Rome above thirteen years.

Gregory the Thirteenth was succeeded by Sixtus the Fifth, whose history is so remarkable that I cannot refrain from relating it. This celebrated personage was the son of a vine dresser residing in a small village in the territory of Montalto, who, being very poor, placed the boy with a farmer in the neighbourhood, who employed him to look after his pigs. It happened, one day, that a Franciscan friar travelling through that part of the country, required a guide to conduct him to Ascoli, a town some few miles distant, and our hero was charged with the office. The worthy friar was so pleased with his conversation on the road, that he took him to his convent, where he remained; and by close study became, in time, such an excellent scholar, that he was appointed to a professorship in the college of Sienna. The fame he there gained by his lectures caused him to be appointed chief of the Inquisition at Venice; but he had not long filled that high office, before he became involved in a dispute with the Council of Ten, and found it prudent to make his escape from that city. He then took up his abode at Rome, where he was soon raised to the dignity of cardinal by Pope Pius the Fifth, and was also highly distinguished by Gregory the Thirteenth, at whose death he was elected pope.

A story is told of his having used some artifice on this occasion, pretending to be in very ill health, and extremely infirm, because he knew there were a great many of the cardinals who had reasons for wishing that the next pontificate should be a short one, and would perhaps be induced to choose him, if they thought he could not live long. If this were true, the cardinals must have been

very much disappointed, when he threw aside his counterfeited infirmities and appeared in perfect health.

His government was extremely vigorous, and so strictly just, that it is said he never granted pardon to a criminal under any circumstances. But with this austere temper he did much real good, by freeing the country around Rome from those desperate bands of robbers that for many years had overrun the territory of the capital. He took great pleasure in aggrandising his humble family, and adorning his native place with fine buildings; but his chief public works were at Rome, where he made an extensive aqueduct for conveying water to the city from a distance of thirteen miles; rebuilt the Vatican library on a more magnificent scale; and erected near it a fine printing office.

This pontiff was a great admirer of Queen Elizabeth, and of Henry the Fourth of France, who were reigning in his time, although both these sovereigns were of the Protestant faith; but he said they knew well how to govern, and were worthy of the thrones they occupied. Sixtus reigned only five years; and when he died, the people rather rejoiced than otherwise, for he had been more feared than beloved, and the strictness with which he enforced the laws against all offenders, had more the air of tyranny than justice. An instance of this occurred in the case of a Spanish gentleman of rank, who had killed a Swiss soldier, by striking him a violent blow, to which act he had been provoked by the man's insolence. When the pope was informed of the circumstance, he desired that the culprit should be instantly executed, refusing to listen to any evidence in extenuation of his crime; and when the execution was over, he

said to some of his domestics, "Bring me my dinner; this act of justice has given me an appetite."

The history of Rome, up to the time of the French invasion, affords very little subject for a narrative such as this. The most remarkable event was, the suppression of the order of Jesuits, by Pope Clement the Fourteenth, who would perhaps have been sorry to put an end to a society that had been of so much service to the Catholic religion, had it not been the wish of almost all the Catholic potentates of Europe that it should be abolished. The Jesuits had already been expelled from several countries, their property confiscated, and their colleges shut up, or converted to other purposes; therefore, the pope was obliged to give his consent for the suppression of the order altogether, which, it has been said, he did very reluctantly in the year 1773.

He died soon afterwards, and was succeeded by Pius the Sixth, a man eminently distinguished for his virtues and talents, and highly respected by all the princes of Europe, several of whom visited him at his court, and amongst others, the English dukes of Sussex and Gloucester. In the early part of his reign, he made a fine road, forty miles in length, through the Roman states; founded several hospitals; and caused vast tracts of marshy lands to be drained, so as to render them fit for cultivation. In short, Rome had never been governed by a more beneficent sovereign, nor one more anxious to promote the happiness and prosperity of the people, when all his paternal cares were rendered unavailing by the French revolution and its attendant consequences.

It is surprising that, among the many improvements made by various popes, they had never caused the streets of Rome to be lighted at night, but had allowed them

to remain in total darkness, with the exception of receiving the solitary rays of the few candles placed by pious persons before the images of the virgin, or the partial light of the lanterns and torches carried by servants behind carriages, whilst lighting their masters home from some conversazione.

Rome was not so gay a city as Venice, except on extraordinary occasions, such as the Jubilee, or the coronation of the pope, which was a very magnificent ceremony. It was usually performed in the church of St. John de Lateran, the most ancient of the sacred edifices in Rome. The procession from the Vatican was extremely splendid, the cardinals all attending on horseback, in their purple robes and scarlet hats; the nobles of Rome in full dress, each followed by four pages in rich array; and the pope himself riding on a white mule, preceded by his Swiss guards in coats of mail and caps adorned with large plumes of feathers; the cavalcade presenting altogether a very grand spectacle.

In this order, the pope took his way from the palace to the church, where he was crowned; after which he proceeded to the Campidoglio, a citadel erected by Michael Angelo, opposite St. Peter's, on the site of the ancient Roman capitol, crowds of the common people thronging around him to beg his blessing. On arriving at the capitol, the keys were presented to him by the governor, and restored by him with an appropriate benediction, after which the procession returned to the palace. The evening was celebrated with illuminations, fireworks, and other public rejoicings. The most striking feature in the public festivities at Rome was the illumination of the great dome of St. Peter's, which had a most bril-

liant effect, as seen against the clear deep blue of an Italian sky.

The French style of dress was now prevalent in all the great towns of Italy, and in compliance with a strange custom which had been introduced, married people could not, on any occasion, be seen together in public without violating the rules of fashion and etiquette. Every married lady, therefore, made choice of some particular gentleman, frequently a relative of noble birth and scanty fortune, who attended her wherever she went, and was called her cavalier servente.

Masks were very generally worn by both sexes at all public places, a gentleman usually appearing at an opera or assembly in a black silk domino, which was a short cloak, with a velvet mask under his hat, just concealing the upper part of the face. The ladies wore the mask quite over the face, and a veil thrown over the head.

No place in the world could be more gay during the latter half of the eighteenth century, than the city of Venice, notwithstanding all its misfortunes; for the Venetians, having no longer any pretensions to power, devoted themselves entirely to amusement; so that, to a stranger, each day appeared like a public holiday, in consequence of the processions, fêtes, and shows of various kinds. Then the gondolas on the canals were occupied by parties in pursuit of enjoyment, and the rooms called casinos, in St. Mark's place, were every evening filled with company, it being customary for people of fashion, instead of entertaining their friends at their own houses, to invite parties of ladies and gentlemen to partake of refreshments at a casino.

The carnival was celebrated with more splendour there

than in any other city, and Venice, at that mirthful season, was always visited by immense numbers of foreigners. In short, pleasure engrossed the whole time and thoughts of the Venetians, until that important event took place to which I have so often alluded, and which I am now about to relate.

CONQUESTS OF THE FRENCH IN ITALY.

1793 TO 1806.

WE have now arrived at the period of the French Revolution which caused so many important changes in every part of Europe, and gave an aspect entirely new to the affairs of Italy, which had never yet experienced such extraordinary reverses as were now about to take place. The chief states were, at this time, the dominions of the pope, the Venetian states, the duchies of Parma, Modena, and Lucca, the grand duchy of Tuscany, and a little free republic called San Marino, besides the kingdom of Naples and Sicily. Each of these, as we have already seen, had its sovereign prince, and its separate government; but the emperor of Germany was in reality the ruler of the whole country; and it was to deprive him of this power, that the French Directory determined upon the invasion of Italy. Bonaparte was then a very young man, only just rising into notice; but his military

talents were so conspicuous, that he was promoted to the rank of a general, and the command of the expedition was entrusted to him.

The war was carried on chiefly in the north of Italy, and with such complete success, on the part of the French, that in two years, the whole of Lombardy was conquered, and the Austrians were entirely driven out of Italy. It must be kept in mind, that this war was not directed against the Italians, but against the Austrians; therefore the Italian states took as little part in it as possible; but they were reduced to great distress by its effects, and it was not to be expected that they could remain mere spectators.

The king of Naples, and the pope, the venerable and excellent Pius the Sixth, were permitted by the conqueror to remain at peace; but in return for this indulgence, the king paid a heavy contribution, and the pope was obliged to surrender a large portion of his territories, and to give up a great number of valuable pictures and manuscripts that had enriched the palace and library of the Vatican. It was during this campaign, that the ancient republic of Venice was ended, the senate dissolved, and a new form of government substituted. Bonaparte had made certain demands of this state, with which the council refused to comply; therefore he declared war, invaded the Venetian territories, and was preparing to besiege the city; when the doge and senate, alarmed at the threatened danger, surrendered the republic to the general, who formed a new government; but when he made peace with the emperor, at the conclusion of the campaign, the city of Venice, with some portion of its territories, was ceded to Austria. He had also taken possession of Genoa, where he established also a new form

of government, under the name of the Ligurian republic, so called because the ancient name of the country was Liguria.

All the conquered states of Lombardy were united into one republic, to which Bonaparte gave the name of the Cis-Alpine republic, and made regulations for its future government on the same plan as that of the French republic. After all these successes, he made peace with the emperor, and the treaty of Campo Formio was signed between them, by which the emperor acknowledged the independence of the new states formed by the French general, who then returned triumphant to Paris.

It happened not long after the treaty of Campo Formio, that the French directory took advantage of some popular tumult at Rome, to carry into effect a design which, no doubt, they had for some time contemplated; it was that of abolishing the papal government. The pretext was, that the secretary of the French legation had been killed at Rome, during the riots, by the pope's troops, and although explanation and apology were offered, they were not likely to be accepted, because the complainants did not wish to accommodate the affair.

It was on a day of public rejoicing at Rome, being the anniversary of the pope's election, at which ceremony he himself was assisting, that two French officers entered the chapel, and loudly proclaimed that his power was at an end. His Swiss guards were dismissed, and he was placed under the protection of soldiers belonging to the French republic. The cardinals were all deprived of their authority, and their estates and other property confiscated; the Vatican and the churches were plun-

dered; and a great deal of private property fell a prey to the invaders.

A new government was formed at Rome, consisting of seven consuls, six ministers of state, and deputies from the different provinces; but they were not to make laws, nor to pass any resolutions, without the concurrence of the French general Berthier, who was now commanding in Italy, as Bonaparte was preparing for his expedition to Egypt.

In the meantime, the unfortunate pope retired to a monastery near Florence, where he remained, surrounded by a few attached friends, till the renewal of the war with the Austrians caused his removal to France, where he died, in 1791, at the advanced age of eighty two, having ruled over the church of Rome nearly twenty-five years.

While Bonaparte was absent in Egypt, the Austrians recovered a large portion of the north of Italy; not, as may readily be supposed, without many dreadful scenes of bloodshed. But their triumph was rendered of short duration by the return of Bonaparte. This general had been raised to the head of the French government by the title of First Consul, and he then resolved to lose no time in hastening to reconquer Italy. It was now that he conducted his army, by a difficult and unknown path, across the Alps, which is looked upon as the most wonderful of all his great exploits.

The descent of the French from the heights of Mount St. Bernard astonished the Austrians, who, being thus taken by surprise, were very easily defeated; and after the great and decisive battle of Marengo, Bonaparte entered the city of Milan without opposition, and all Lombardy was again in his power.

While Bonaparte was thus engaged in reconquering the Milanese, a body of Austrians had laid siege to Genoa, which was occupied by a French garrison, commanded by the famous French general Massena. The siege of Genoa is among the most memorable events of the revolutionary wars in Italy, not only on account of the defence made by the general, but also of the miseries endured by the inhabitants for want of food. The town was at first but ill-stored with provisions, and was so completely blockaded, that it was impossible for its inhabitants to send out into the country for supplies, nor could the peasants bring food to the sufferers, as every approach to the city was watched with the strictest vigilance.

The people foreseeing the distress to which they were likely to be reduced, took great care, from the beginning, to economize their stores, so as to make them last as long as possible; and the corn was given out by the government in very scanty portions; and when it began to fail, was mixed with other kinds of grain, to eke it out still farther, and add to the nourishment of the latter.

Then the people had no means of grinding their corn, except by the use of their little coffee mills, for the Austrians had siezed on all the corn mills, on purpose that they might not be able to make bread.

Many thousands of these small machines were constantly at work to obtain even a scanty supply of flour, so that all were obliged to lend their assistance for the common benefit, and ladies of the highest rank employed themselves all day long in grinding corn. But, at length, there was no corn left to grind, nor any meat but the flesh of horses; and even this revolting food was a dainty compared with what was eaten before the city was surrendered.

Groans and lamentations were heard on all sides. Many died of actual starvation; and some, particularly among the French soldiers, unable to support their sufferings any longer, put an end to their own existence. Little children, whose parents had perished in this miserable manner, were seen in the streets begging for a morsel of bread, which no one had to give them; and, therefore, like their parents, they died of starvation. At last, the fortitude of the general himself gave way, and he agreed to capitulate. The gates were thrown open, and the Austrians entered; when many a drooping heart was cheered, and many a sinking frame invigorated, by bread and meat, an abundance of which was immediately brought into the town; and so ravenously were these provisions devoured, that many died from over indulgence.

Genoa was surrendered on the 4th of June, in the year 1800; and it was on the 17th of the same month, that the battle of Marengo caused the gates of Milan to be opened to Bonaparte, who entered the city in triumph, and was received with the utmost demonstrations of joy, perhaps, because his coming was likely to put an end to the war. In short, he again gave laws to Italy, and allowed the new pope, who had been elected at Venice, and had assumed the title of Pius the Seventh, to take his place at the head of the Roman government, having previously ascertained that the new pontiff was not likely to thwart his plans.

Pius the Seventh made his entrance into Rome in the month of July, 1800, and was received with great joy by the people. He was a mild and good man, and endeavoured to restore all things at Rome as nearly as he could to their former state; but his authority was merely nominal, for he could do nothing without the sanction of

the French consul, who, in 1802, caused himself to be appointed president of the Cis-alpine, which then took the name of the Italian republic.

Bonaparte had consented to make peace with the king of Naples, but it was on condition that the latter should allow sixteen thousand French troops to be maintained in his kingdom; so that he was, in fact, kept in subjection by a military force.

About this time, the king of Sardinia, who had been compelled to give up his dominions on the Continent to the French republic, transferred his title to his brother, Victor Emanuel, who went to the island of Sardinia, which he managed to govern peaceably enough, with the assistance of a few soldiers, till he was restored to the possessions of his family, at the peace of 1814. His residence was at Cagliari, a fortified town, with a strong castle. This island is mountainous and barren; great part of it consists of vast stony and sandy districts, and extensive forests, but the cultivated lands are laid out in corn-fields, vineyards, olive grounds, orchards, and gardens. It is, however, the least productive and least valuable of all the dominions of his Sardinian majesty.

Bonaparte, in 1804, became emperor of France, and invited the pope to Paris to be present at his coronation. This usurpation of the sovereignty in France, was soon followed by a similar revolution in Italy, where the assembly that had been formed by himself, for the government of the Italian republic, and of which he was the president, proclaimed him king of Italy, in 1805.

The new monarch repaired to Milan, with the empress Josephine, and a splendid suite, to be crowned, according to ancient custom, with the iron crown of Lombardy. This crown is not made of iron, but of gold,

having merely a thin rim of iron inside, said to be made of a nail of the true cross; a legend that is, at best, but doubtful. It is the crown with which the kings of Lombardy were crowned, in former times, and was also used at the coronation of Charlemagne, and of all the German emperors who were crowned in Italy.

The coronation of Bonaparte took place on a Sunday, and was graced with the presence of all the Milanese ladies of rank, in superb dresses, who followed in the train of the empress. In the evening, the buildings were illuminated, bonfires were lighted in all directions, and the whole city was a scene of festivity, as if the people were delighted with the idea of having a king. From Milan, the emperor proceeded to Genoa, where his arrival was also greeted with public rejoicings.

All traces of the melancholy circumstances attending the siege of this city had passed away, and, to all outward appearance, it was as gay and populous as ever; although, no doubt, there were many sorrowful hearts among the throng, that had not ceased to mourn the fate of friends who had perished during that time of calamity.

The Austrians had given up Genoa again to the French, immediately after the battle of Marengo; so that all the lives that had been sacrificed, and all the miseries that had been endured, had answered no greater end than that of putting the Austrians into possession of the city for a few days.

Bonaparte had restored the name of the Ligurian republic, and placed the government in the hands of a doge and senators, who now received him as their king, with marks of the deepest respect. The doge, Jerome Durazzo, presented him with the keys of the city, which he most graciously returned, according to etiquette, and

then he took up his temporary abode in the Doria palace, which had been prepared for his reception.

A very animated description is given of the festivities at Genoa, during the stay of the emperor, which forms a striking contrast to that afforded by the state of the town when surrounded by the besiegers. Illuminations, fireworks, music, dancing, and feasting, occupied the attention of all classes, while splendid exhibitions were prepared for the amusement of the royal party.

Among the most beautiful of these were four islands floating on the sea, and representing Chinese gardens, filled with bands of music, and singers. At night, these gardens were illuminated, and continued to float up and down, filling the air with the most delightful harmony. To have judged of the feelings of the people by their demonstrations of joy, it would have appeared that the French government was highly agreeable to them, nor do we find that it was any where resisted by the Italians themselves.

Bonaparte now made great alterations in the government of all the principal states. He bestowed the sovereignty of Lucca and Piombino on his own sister, Eliza, and her husband, with the titles of prince and princess; and he afterwards added Tuscany to their dominions.

The grand duke Ferdinand had been expelled in 1799, and the duchy was formed into a republic by the French, who gave it the name of the Etruscan commonwealth; for Bonaparte was fond of restoring ancient names. He afterwards changed it into a kingdom, calling it the kingdom of Etruria, and placing over it as king, Louis, the only son of the duke of Parma.

This prince died in 1803, and his infant son succeeded to the kingdom, which was governed by his mother,

Maria Louisa, a princess of Spain, as regent; but she was obliged to resign her authority, after a time, in consequence of a treaty between France and Spain, and Etruria then became a French province. A council was formed to conduct the government, composed of men of great talent, who did much good by encouraging the cultivation of cotton and silk, improving the wool trade, and promoting manufactures, particularly of Tuscan and Leghorn hats. They also gave much encouragement to the universities of Pisa and Florence, both of which had able professors, and many students.

It was in 1809 that this state was given to the princess Eliza, who took the title of grand duchess of Tuscany, and reigned there until the great revolution that put an end to the wonderful but brief career of her brother Napoleon, whose downfall involved that of his whole family.

All the territories belonging to Genoa were united to France; the French laws were made the laws of that state, and a French governor was appointed to rule in the city, where at the same time, the doge was allowed to retain his rank and title, although he had no real authority.

Venice was divided between France and Austria, and in that part of it which belonged to the former, the French laws also were introduced. When Bonaparte had made such regulations as he thought necessary for the future government of Italy, he appointed Eugene Beauharnais, the son of the empress Josephine, by a former husband, viceroy of his new kingdom, and that prince arrived at Venice, with his bride, in the spring of 1806.

Shortly after the arrival of the viceroy, Joseph Bonaparte was sent by his brother to invade Naples, which

submitted without much opposition, and he was crowned king; while Ferdinand, with his queen, sought refuge in Sicily, which was defended by the English troops that were stationed there.

The Neapolitan royalists, however, continued to form parties in favour of Ferdinand, but they were constantly dispersed by the French, and some of their leaders put to death. Among these was a noted brigand, named Michael Pezzo, but better known as Fra Diavolo. He had long been notorious for his robberies, both in Calabria and the mountains of Abruzzo; nevertheless, he was engaged in the Neapolitan service, and performed many daring exploits against the French, who, after having deposed the king of Naples, anxiously sought after Fra Diavolo, who was at length taken at St. Severino, and brought to Naples, where he was executed in the market-place. Joseph Bonaparte reigned at Naples about two years, when he was placed by Napoleon on the throne of Spain, and the crown of the two Sicilies was given to general Murat, who had married Caroline Bonaparte, a sister of the emperor.

The town of Naples, and a great part of the kingdom, had quietly received the kings that had been set over them, nor do they appear to have had much cause of dissatisfaction; but the French could not obtain possession either of Sicily or Calabria; the former being, as I before observed, protected by the English; the latter, overrun with brigands, and inhabited, besides, by a fierce, half-civilized people, almost as lawless as the robbers themselves, and hating the very name of the French.

A cruel warfare was carried on for some years in this wild and singular region, with a view of exterminating the banditti, and subjugating the peasantry, a few parti-

culars of which may be interesting to the reader, as affording some information respecting a country so little known as the unfrequented province of Calabria.

WARS IN CALABRIA,

AND OTHER EVENTS, TO THE GENERAL PEACE.

1806 TO 1815.

THE peninsula of Calabria, where once stood some of the most opulent cities of the ancient Greeks, was very little known in modern times, until the invasion of the French, who in the course of the war that followed, which lasted from 1806 to 1810, had an opportunity of learning much respecting both it and its inhabitants.

The whole country was under subjection to a few powerful barons, who possessed castles and large tracts of land, with a numerous peasantry who were their vassals, and over whom they exercised all the despotic rights of feudal lords. Some of these nobles lived on their estates; others resided at Naples, and left them to the care of stewards; but in almost all cases the peasants were much oppressed, and were often tempted to join the numerous hordes of banditti that haunted every glen and forest throughout the province; and thus their numbers were increased to a most fearful extent.

The country is intersected by a lofty range of mountains, the summit of which is a vast plain, covered with

fine pastures, villages, farms, and woods famous for a kind of ash tree, from which is obtained abundance of manna, one of the staple commodities of the trade of Calabria, which also produces silk, cotton, oil, oranges, and lemons. Chesnuts, likewise, are produced in abundance; for the sides of the mountains are clothed with whole forests of chesnut trees, besides pines, larches, and olive groves.

The mountain plain, which is called *la Sila*, is verdant and beautiful in the summer season; but when the winter sets in, it is covered with deep snows, which oblige the inhabitants to descend with their flocks, herds, and household furniture, to the low lands, where they remain till the snows have disappeared, and the high regions are again habitable.

In the year 1783, the whole peninsula was shaken by a terrible earthquake, which laid in ruins some of the towns and villages, threw down several castles and monasteries, and destroyed, it is supposed, upwards of thirty thousand people. Among those who perished by this awful calamity, was the princess of Gerace, a lady who possessed such large domains, that she was called the queen of Calabria; and the prince of Scilla, an aged nobleman, whose fate will give an idea of the fearful visitations to which this land is subject. The castle of the prince, with all the surrounding buildings, had fallen, and many were buried beneath the ruins. All the survivors, to the number of about four thousand, sought refuge on the strand of a small bay, and kneeling around their feudal lord, were engaged in prayer, when a large portion of the promontory, called *mount Baci*, fell with a frightful crash into the sea, which rose instantaneously to a great height, and one tremendous wave rushing over the shore of Scilla, carried away the aged

prince and his people, who were never seen or heard of more.

This calamity, which altered the whole face of the country, was still fresh in the remembrance of many of the inhabitants, and traces of it were visible in every part, when the French first invaded Calabria, immediately after the usurpation of Joseph Bonaparte.

The king and queen of Naples had fled to Sicily, but their son, the crown prince, occupied Calabria, with a considerable army of Neapolitans. He was, however, defeated by the French general Regnier, and embarked for Sicily, leaving the French in possession of Calabria, where they fancied themselves quite secure, when an English fleet from Sicily appeared in the bay of St. Euphemia, and landed a body of troops, who gained a great victory over the French.

The Calabrians thus encouraged to revolt against their new masters, might have succeeded in expelling them from the country, if their English allies had remained to assist them; but it was a time of the year when the low lands of Calabria, not being drained, were particularly unhealthy from the damp exhalations, and so many Englishmen died in consequence, that the fleet returned to Sicily. Then Marshal Massena arrived, with a reinforcement of French troops for the purpose of putting down the insurrection, and after a desperate resistance, the people were disarmed, their leaders were arrested, tried by a military court, and condemned to death; and a rigorous military government was established in every town.

It was now that numbers of the disaffected joined the brigands, and that a cruel war commenced against those lawless bands, which ended in their total extermination.

The French troops employed in this hard service, had many perils to encounter, to which they were totally unaccustomed in regular warfare. The peasants were sometimes in league with the banditti, and thus the soldiers were often drawn into a snare, from which they did not always escape without great loss.

On one occasion, a company of *voltigeurs* lost their way among the mountains of the Sila, and came to a village that was noted as being the common haunt of a brigand chief, named Francatripa, and his band. The French officers, however, being unacquainted with the country, were not aware of their danger, and were glad to find themselves in a place where they expected to obtain food and quarters for the night. As they approached the village, they were met by a person who appeared to be of some importance, and who represented himself as the commander of the national guards, saying that he was deputed to offer refreshment and lodging for the night to the troops. The invitation was joyfully accepted, and the whole party conducted to a large mansion at the end of the village; where, having no suspicion of treachery, they piled their arms before the door, and went in.

After partaking of a plentiful repast, the soldiers had just settled themselves to rest, when a pistol fired from a window gave the signal for a general massacre. The three officers who were in the parlour, talking to the person who had invited them to the house, and who, I need scarcely say, was Francatripa, the bandit chief, were struck down and killed instantly; while the unfortunate soldiers, who rushed out into the village, were fired upon from every window in the place; and only seven of their whole company escaped.

Many of the inhabitants of the towns, and some of the great landed proprietors, secretly favoured the brigands, on account of the hatred they bore towards the French. The state of the country at this time was melancholy in the extreme. No one ever thought of stirring out without being well armed, and as soon as the evening began to advance, every house was closely shut up and barricaded. But social enjoyment was unknown amongst its inmates, on account of their fear of the brigands on the one hand, and on the other of the military commissions instituted for the trial and punishment of those who were suspected of disaffection towards the French government, and whose severity inspired universal terror.

There were no inns, at that time, in Calabria; therefore the soldiers, on arriving at any town or village, entered, without ceremony, into the houses, the people being obliged to give them lodging and entertainment free of cost. The French officers, who had admittance into the principal families of Calabria, speak of the ladies as being entirely uneducated, and treated by their husbands with very little respect or affection.

The Calabrians are naturally jealous and revengeful, and the habit of always wearing pistols and poniards under their long black cloaks, afforded them but too often a ready means for satiating the violence of those bad passions. Most of the men carried a musket as well as the arms they wore in their belts, nor were such weapons unnecessary, as they never crossed their own thresholds in safety. The brigands were armed and attired in the same fashion as the rest of the people, their costume being a long black cloak, coarse boots or gaiters, and a high crowned hat, terminating in a point, and

sometimes adorned with feathers and ribbons. The dress of the women generally consisted of a short full skirt of red cloth, with a kind of jacket of the same material, and a head-dress composed of a piece of coarse linen folded into a square, with long ends hanging down on each side. They are described as having dark complexions, and harsh unfeminine features, which partake, in some degree, of the same ferocious expression of countenance observable in the men; so that, on the whole, their appearance must be very far from attractive.

The war was carried on without success against the brigands, during a space of about four years, when Murat, king of Naples, adopted a new mode of exterminating them; a dreadful one, indeed, but it had the effect of freeing the country from a scourge that had long put a stop to all kinds of industry, and prevented the introduction of more civilised habits and manners.

It was in 1810, that General Manlies, aid-de-camp of Murat, was entrusted with the difficult and dangerous task of suppressing brigandage in Calabria. The chiefs had, at this time, portioned out the whole country among themselves, as the American Indians divide their hunting grounds, each chief taking to himself the right of plundering a certain district, and no one band interfering with another. It was suspected by the French, and not without reason, that some of the Calabrian nobles were in communication with the robber chieftains; therefore the general issued a decree that every landowner should be obliged to enlist in the service against the banditti, and pursue them to their most secret haunts, until they were utterly destroyed. Any neglect of this command was to be punished with death, consequently the people were compelled to engage in a warfare of the most cruel

description. The brigands were hunted to their dens like the wild beasts of the forest, and perished in various ways; some by the sword, some by the hand of the executioner; and many, not daring to come forth from their haunts, died of hunger.

Thus fell all the most powerful of the banditti, and although a few small bands of robbers were afterwards formed, and still harbour among the mountains, the system of brigandage as it existed before that war, has entirely ceased. The feudal system was abolished under the French government, the few remaining monasteries were suppressed, agriculture and trade were encouraged, and the country altogether became generally improved.

During the wars in Calabria, Bonaparte, not finding the pope quite so subservient to his will as he had anticipated, determined to take the government of Rome into his own hands, and accordingly sent to the pope, desiring that he should resign the sovereign authority, and content himself with being treated merely as the bishop of Rome. The imperial mandate being resisted, the emperor sent an army into the territories of the Holy See, to enforce his will; the pontiff was attacked in his palace, made prisoner, and carried away to Savona in Piedmont, while a new form of government was instituted at Rome.

One of the first acts of the new council, which of course proceeded entirely under the direction of the emperor, was to suppress all the convents, the foreign monks being sent to their own countries, and those who were natives, obliged to lay aside the habit of their order. The nuns were so unwilling to quit their convents, that soldiers were sent to expel them by force, giving them only twenty-four hours to make their melancholy preparations.

Still the French government was not a bad one, although it did not quite suit the genius of the Italians. An attempt was made to encourage industry, by awarding prizes to the artificers of Rome for the best woven silk and wool, the best bone lace, beaver hats, paper, glass, and earthenware; and also to those landed proprietors in the Roman territories who should grow the greatest quantity of fine cotton, and plant the largest number of olive trees; but the pope was quite right when he said, on being informed of the proceedings of the French council, that the Romans would never carry on, to much advantage, any pursuits unconnected with learning or the fine arts.

Although the pope was detained in captivity, he persisted in refusing to acknowledge Bonaparte as supreme head of the church, and would not allow him to nominate bishops to the vacant sees; a right that the emperor was desirous of assuming, and would have taken upon himself, but that he was opposed by all the other dignitaries of the church, who would not submit to his authority in such affairs, unless sanctioned by the pope himself. This opposition gave great annoyance to Bonaparte, who resolved to hold a personal interview with Pius on the subject; and, with that intent, had him conveyed away by night from Savona, and carried to the palace of Fontainebleau. His departure was kept so secret, that the people of Savona had no suspicion of his removal, as the guards were daily stationed round the palace where he had been lodged, as usual, and a dinner was cooked every day, and sent up to the apartments he had occupied, so that the domestics believed he was still there, a few attendants only being in the plot.

It was not till after the return of Bonaparte from his

unfortunate expedition to Moscow, that his conference with the pope at Fontainebleau took place; therefore, any arrangements made between them, were of little importance, as the emperor was deposed very soon afterwards.

In the meantime, secret societies had been formed all over Italy, under the name of the Carbonari, their object being, as far as it appears, to do away with all the monarchies, and establish republics again in Italy. There is, however, some mystery about the proceedings and intentions of the carbonari societies; and as they are unlawful, those who belong to them take care not to let it be known, except to the members of the fraternity, who have a secret sign by which they can recognize each other. The origin of the carbonari is not exactly known, but it is supposed they first adopted that name from the circumstance of a great number of them belonging to a class of men who carried on the occupation of charcoal burners, among the mountains of Abruzzo, a country forming the northern extremity of Naples, and almost as famous for robbers, and desperate characters of all kinds, as the southern province of Calabria.

By degrees secret associations were formed in all the Italian states, and men of all ranks and all descriptions were admitted into them, on taking the oaths, and subscribing to the rules laid down for their conduct. The carbonari are, in fact, the republicans of Italy; and it is believed that they have been the instigators of the several insurrections and attempts at revolution that have taken place of late years.

The downfall of Bonaparte, in 1814, naturally occasioned great changes in Italy. This event was foreseen from the time of his retreat from Moscow, and many

who had been raised to greatness by him, endeavoured to avoid being involved in his ruin, by going over, in time, to his enemies. Among these ungrateful persons was Murat, the king of Naples, who renounced his alliance with his benefactor, and offered to join the Austrians, provided the emperor of Austria would confirm his title to the crown of Naples, which he did; but not with any intention of permitting him to retain possession of the throne longer than he required his services in expelling the French once more from Italy.

Eugene Beauharnais, who was much beloved, still held the rank of viceroy, and kept his court at Venice; but when he received intelligence that Bonaparte was deposed, and that the Austrians and Neapolitans were advancing against himself, he wisely adopted the resolution of withdrawing, with his family, into Bavaria, his wife being a princess of that country.

The pope, Pius the Seventh, had been set at liberty by Bonaparte, in the early part of the year 1814, and had returned to Rome, where he restored all things to the same state in which they were before the usurpation of the French. Being aware, however, that there were a great many revolutionists, whom I have spoken of under the name of carbonari, in the country, he re-instituted the order of the Jesuits, as a check upon them; and the inquisition was also re-established, but without any of its former terrors, for the use of torture was entirely prohibited, and this once-dreaded tribunal had nothing in it more formidable than any other judicial court.

When Bonaparte made his escape from Elba, and returned to Paris, the king of Naples again changed sides, and attempted to excite an insurrection in the north of

Italy against the Austrians, with whom he had so lately allied himself; but he failed, and fled in disguise to France; for as he had by his own conduct forfeited the protection of the emperor of Austria, it was useless for him to think of returning to Naples, which was restored to the lawful king Ferdinand, through the intervention of the English, by whom he had been protected in Sicily; and he was received in his capital with every testimony of loyalty.

The ex-king, Murat, after some perilous adventures, returned to Italy, and landed in Calabria, with a few of his partisans, hoping the Calabrians would espouse his cause; but he was seized almost immediately, and placed in confinement, while an express was sent to Naples for instructions as to his fate. An order was returned for his instant execution, and he was shot four days after his arrival in Calabria, in the autumn of 1815. The sentence was generally considered a severe one; but it is probable that Ferdinand, who was not naturally inclined to harsh measures, was advised to sacrifice Murat, as the only means of preventing a civil war; and thus the death of one individual, perhaps, saved the lives of many thousands.

I have now to mention how the different states of Italy were disposed of by the sovereigns, who, after the fall of Bonaparte, undertook to settle the affairs of Europe. The king of Sardinia, Victor Emanuel, received back his territories of Piedmont and part of Savoy, with the addition of Genoa, which, after all its vicissitudes became, at last, a part of the kingdom of Sardinia. Tuscany was restored to the grand duke Ferdinand, brother of the emperor of Austria, who was himself absolute sovereign of all Lombardy, and who added the Venetian territories to his Tuscan and Lombard states.

Some of the smaller duchies were given back to their former possessors on various conditions; but the whole of the more northerly portions of Italy may be considered, from this period, as under the dominion of the house of Austria.

EVENTS SINCE THE PEACE,

AND PRESENT STATE OF ITALY.

1814 TO 1841.

NEARLY thirty years have passed away since peace was restored to Europe, during which space of time no material changes have taken place in Italy, save such as occur in the common course of nature, by which some of the sovereigns have been removed by death, and others placed on their vacated thrones. In most of the states, attempts have been made, at different times, to effect revolutions, and measures consequently have been adopted to suppress the secret societies of the carbonari, who are supposed to be the originators of all public disturbances. The Austrian government, however, is watchful, and the least signs of revolutionary movements are instantly checked by a military force.

Since the peace, four pontiffs have successively occupied the papal chair, but these changes in the pontificate have produced but little alteration in the general state of the country, or even in that of Rome itself. Pius

the Seventh died in 1823. His successor was Leo the Twelfth, who reigned six years; when his place was filled by Pius the Eighth, who, being old, and in very bad health, lived only a few months after his election, and was succeeded, in the beginning of the year 1831, by Gregory the Sixteenth, who is still living, and is much beloved and respected.

The happiest part of Italy is still, as it ever has been, the grand duchy of Tuscany. Its amiable and talented ruler, duke Ferdinand, died in 1824, and was succeeded by his son, Leopold the Second, who, ever since his accession, has been constantly employed in attending to the welfare of his people, and the improvement of the country. He has made several new roads, and improved many parts of a low marshy country extending along the sea coast, called the Maremme, which is so unhealthy, from damp, and the sulphureous nature of the soil, that it had long been entirely deserted; but by his exertions, it has since been rendered partially habitable.

All modern travellers speak of the gaiety, neatness, and easy circumstances of the Tuscan peasantry, who seem to enjoy more happiness than the rural population of any other country in Europe, except Austria. At every cottage door are seen women and girls busily employed in plaiting straw for hats, of which great quantities are sent all over Europe, and to the American states. The young peasant girls wear these hats themselves, ornamented with flowers and ribbons. The Italian language is spoken more correctly in Tuscany than in any other part of Italy, Rome not excepted; and even the lower classes express themselves with a degree of refinement that is seldom found amongst uneducated people.

The country around Florence is well cultivated, beautiful and picturesque, and the hills are covered with elegant villas, belonging to the nobility and gentry. In Florence, as in almost all the large towns of Italy, the ground floors of the best houses, which are generally dignified with the name of palaces, are let out as shops, and the family of the shopkeeper occupies the first floor; so that the owners of the palace have often to ascend two flights of stairs, to reach their residence. Most great families have also a custom, which appears strange to English people, of agreeing with their cooks to furnish them with a dinner every day, for a certain price, which is of course determined according to the number of the family, and the manner in which they choose to live.

The sister of the grand duke of Tuscany is married to the present king of Sardinia, formerly the prince of Carignano, who succeeded to the throne on the death of Charles Felix, in 1831.

And now we must go back a few years, to trace the events which occurred in the kingdom of Sardinia, after the restoration of the king Victor Emanuel, at the downfall of Bonaparte in 1814. The restored monarch was a great friend to the feudal system of government, as it had existed before the time of the French revolution. He therefore speedily abolished all the new regulations which had been introduced into the country while it was under the dominion of the French, and re-established all the old institutions, as far as it was possible for him to do so. He restored the order of the Jesuits, invited the exiled monks and nuns to return to their convents, and commenced his government on the principles of absolute monarchy.

On his return, the king was accompanied by a great

many gentlemen who formerly held lands in Piedmont, which had been taken from them at the time of the French revolution, and sold for much less than their real value. It now became a question whether the new or the old proprietors were the more justly entitled to these estates, and it was settled that the former owners should be re-instated, on paying back the money for which the lands had been purchased; a decision that was far from being agreeable to the occupiers, as may be supposed. These and other causes of discontent led to a violent insurrection, headed by some of the nobility and chief officers of the army, their object being to obtain a less despotic form of government.

The revolt broke out at Turin, in March 1821, and the king would probably have been induced to accede to the demands of the people for a new constitution, but that he received a communication from the Austrian government, threatening him with invasion, if he should yield to them. The king, who seems to have valued peace and comfort more than royalty, resigned the crown to his brother Felix, who was then at Modena, and retired with his family to Nice, leaving the prince of Carignano, who was next heir to the throne, to act as regent, until the arrival of the new sovereign. This prince was known to entertain what are called liberal principles; that is, he thought the people were right in wishing for such a form of government as would give them more liberty; therefore, as soon as he was in power, he granted the constitution they demanded, adopted measures for the formation of a parliament, and was proceeding rapidly with his reforms, when they were suddenly put a stop to by the arrival of his uncle Felix, who sternly expressed his disapprobation of all that had been

done, forbade the prince to appear at court, and banished all who had been concerned in the insurrection.

It was some time before tranquillity was completely restored, during which the fortresses of Savoy and Piedmont were garrisoned by Austrian troops; but these were at length withdrawn, and the absolute authority of the king was restored. The prince of Carignano served as a volunteer, for two or three years, with the French armies in Spain, when he was re-admitted to the court; and in 1831, succeeded his uncle, by the title of Charles Albert the First.

The king of Sardinia holds his court at Turin, the capital of Piedmont, a handsome town, but less bustling and lively than most of the Italian cities. The higher classes are dignified in their manners, and live usually in a magnificent style. Their sons are educated by the Jesuits, and their daughters in the convents, where they usually remain till they are about to enter into the married state, an affair that is generally arranged by their parents, without consulting them.

The streets of Turin are lighted at night, and guarded by a vigilant police. The floors of the houses are paved, as they are in most parts of Italy, with a red glazed stone; but they have one great advantage over the houses of the Italians, which is, that every good room is warmed by means of a fire place, instead of a brazier with lighted charcoal, the latter of which modes is both disagreeable and unwholesome. The French style of dress is prevalent at Turin, and the females of the middle classes, such as the wives and daughters of shopkeepers, very much resemble French women in their manners and appearance.

The landed proprietors of Piedmont are in general

rich, as estates are very productive in that country, which is one of the most fertile spots in Europe. Its plains afford abundance of corn, rice, fruit, and vegetables; its hills are covered with vineyards; its valleys with fine pastures; and great attention is paid to the growth of mulberry trees, for the nourishment of silk-worms, a branch of industry that affords ample employment for the female peasantry of many districts.

The country folks of Piedmont are cheerful and industrious. The women are fond of gaudy ornaments, such as large necklaces, and earrings, and wear very high muslin caps. On religious festivals, which are frequent in all Catholic countries, the peasants of every village in Piedmont, assemble in the meadows, to dance and make merry; and those who have witnessed the heartfelt mirth displayed on such occasions do not hesitate to pronounce them as happy a set of people as any in Europe. The silks made in Piedmont are superior to those of Naples, although it is very usual for shopkeepers to call a silk "*gros de Naples*," by way of recommendation, and there are also velvet, linen, and woollen manufactories, in different parts of the country.

The new king of Sardinia, Charles Albert, did not pursue the system of reform, which he had advocated at the revolution, and that was, perhaps, the reason why a conspiracy was formed against his life, about two years after his accession to the throne. A timely discovery, however, prevented the execution of the plot, and some persons were put to death in consequence; but the particulars were never known. Charles Albert is still reigning over the kingdom of Sardinia, and is one of the most despotic monarchs of Europe.

The country of Savoy is poorer and less fertile than

that of Piedmont, in consequence of which, many poor boys leave their homes to wander about Europe, trying to gain, by the aid of their voices and guitars, a scanty subsistence in more wealthy countries; and these simple Savoyards are so frugal and industrious, that they not unfrequently return to their native villages, with sufficient money to establish themselves in a more settled mode of life.

Genoa, which still forms a part of the dominions of his Sardinian majesty, has a separate government, headed by the governor general, who is appointed by the king, and resides at the palace, which used to be the residence of the dukes.

Many of the convents, which had been suppressed by the French, were restored by the Sardinian government, and good carriage roads have been made from Genoa to Turin, Milan, and Leghorn.

At Milan, the archduke Ferdinand, uncle of the emperor of Austria, holds his court, as sovereign of all Lombardy, which is entirely under the dominion of the Austrians.

In the year 1838, the coronation of the new emperor, Ferdinand, was performed at Milan, with great splendour, and a general pardon was granted, on the occasion, to all persons who had been condemned to imprisonment or exile for political offences, within the kingdom of Lombardy. I have now only to speak of the changes that have occurred in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, since the death of king Joachim Murat, and the restoration of Ferdinand to the throne.

Notwithstanding the popularity of the monarch, who was very much beloved, an insurrection took place at Naples, in 1820, chiefly among the military, for the pur-

pose of forcing the king to grant a new constitution, which he promised to do; but the emperor of Austria being opposed to the change, he could not keep his word, and the revolutionists, after raising a great tumult both in Naples and Sicily, were obliged to submit to a superior force of Austrian troops, and tranquillity was restored.

Ferdinand the First died at an advanced age, in 1825, and was succeeded by his son, Francis, duke of Calabria, who, during his brief reign of less than six years, increased his only army of native soldiers, very considerably, and induced the emperor to withdraw his Austrian troops from the country.

Ferdinand the Second, the present king of Naples, succeeded to the throne, on the death of his father, in 1831. He is the brother of the dowager queen Christina, of Spain, consequently, uncle to the youthful sovereign of that country, queen Isabella.

The reign of his present majesty of the Neapolitan States has hitherto been sufficiently tranquil to afford him an opportunity of turning his attention to pursuits of peace, instead of busying himself in allaying discord and putting down insurrections, although the country is far from being in a happy or prosperous condition.

The most interesting work going on at the present time, is the farther excavation of the town of Pompeii; the great object of curiosity, wonder, and attraction, to all strangers who visit Naples, from which it is distant about twelve miles. Pompeii and Herculaneum, were two cities of the ancient Romans, standing near to each other, in the province of Campania, about eight or ten miles from the foot of Mount Vesuvius, to the eruptions of which they owe their extraordinary entombment for the long period of nearly eighteen centuries. The eruptions

of this terrific volcano are still frequent, and sometimes very violent.

In the year 1794, the town of Torre del Greco was almost entirely destroyed by one of these awful visitations; but, fortunately, all the inhabitants had time to make their escape, except, we are told, about fifteen individuals, who from extreme age or infirmities, were prevented from saving themselves by flight, and had no kind friends to help them in such an extremity, at least they could have had neither sons nor daughters, or surely they would not have been left to perish in so miserable a manner. The streams of lava, or fiery liquid, that poured down the sides of the mountain, rushed through the town, and forced their way into many of the houses; while other habitations were overwhelmed and destroyed, and the streets choked up by tremendous showers of red hot stones, ashes, and burning cinders.

As lately as 1822, there was a very great eruption, when the atmosphere for miles around was darkened by the quantity of ashes thrown up from the crater, which is the opening at the top of the mountain. Trees and cottages were set on fire, and several vineyards entirely swept away by the floods of lava. But none of the eruptions of modern times appear to have equalled that which buried the cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii, in the reign of the emperor Titus, nearly eighteen hundred years ago.

We have all, probably, witnessed the effects of a violent storm, accompanied by thunder and lightning; then in picturing to ourselves the entombing of these cities, let us imagine the thunder much louder, the lightning more vivid, the earth trembling under our feet, and instead of torrents of hail or rain, dense showers of hot

ashes pouring down, mingled with sulphureous streams of fire, until the burning mass has risen to a height considerably above the highest of the houses, so that they are completely buried beneath it.

Such was the scene presented at the destruction of Pompeii and Herculaneum, in the year 79, when Titus was emperor of the Romans, and the event is recorded in the works of the Latin author, Pliny the younger, who was living at the time, and whose uncle, the celebrated Roman naturalist, and bearing the name of Pliny the elder, perished on that awful occasion.

Years passed away, and the cities which had thus suddenly disappeared, were almost forgotten. On the mass of matter that covered them, a new surface had been formed, upon which other dwellings were, from time to time, erected, and no one cast a thought on the ill-fated towns beneath. Yet there they lay, for seventeen centuries, hidden from the eye of man; and amid all the changes that took place on the earth above them, they remained unaltered.

They were, however, again destined to be brought to light, even after the lapse of so many ages, by the following accidental circumstance. In the year 1713, a labourer, digging in a nobleman's garden, struck with his spade on a hard substance, which proved to be the head of a marble statue; and on penetrating still deeper, he reached the benches of a theatre, on which the figure was standing.

This discovery having been reported, recalled to mind the fatal eruption of Vesuvius, in the time of the Roman empire, a catastrophe, of which there were very few who were entirely ignorant, although none had ever had sufficient curiosity to search for the interesting re-

mains which were thus by chance discovered. The government, however, now instituted a farther search, and some years were employed in clearing a few of the buildings; a laborious operation, as the substance that encrusted them, and filled up the streets, was so hard, that it was difficult to cut through it; for the incrustation of Herculaneum was of a harder nature than that of Pompeii, which is the reason why so little of the former city has even yet been excavated; while several whole streets of Pompeii, which was not discovered till thirty-five years afterwards, have been explored. Herculaneum being nearer to the volcano, received a larger portion of the heavier matter, while Pompeii was chiefly overwhelmed with the lighter ashes, which have become a kind of soft crumbling stone, that may be very easily removed.

A great many curious antiquities were brought out of the ruins of Herculaneum, such as busts, statues, household furniture, and various implements and utensils which had belonged to its ancient inhabitants, most of which were placed in different museums. But the excavated part of this city being dark and difficult of access, and only very partially cleared, is not so interesting to the visitor as the streets and houses of Pompeii, which are laid open to the day, and when first cleared, bore evident signs of the hurry and confusion with which the habitations had been left by their inmates, at that moment of terror, when the chief object of all must have been to escape from the impending danger; and there is little doubt that the greater number of the inhabitants did save themselves by flight, as very few human relics have been found; and these few appeared to be the remains of persons who had perished in a vain attempt to save their property.

The domestic furniture, and every thing moveable, has been carried away by order of the government, but you may still enter familiarly the houses once inhabited by Roman citizens; you may go into their shops, and know what trades were carried on in them by the sign paintings that were found over the doors; for instance, the sign at one house represented a cobbler very busy mending a shoe; and at another, a schoolmaster with a rod in his hand, from which we may infer that the Roman boys were sometimes idle, and needed correction.

One of the great advantages derived from the discovery of Pompeii is, that of having set at rest several disputed points with regard to the usages of the ancient Romans; and among others, a question that had long been contested, as to whether they had glass in their windows. Many ingenious arguments upon this subject had been brought forward on both sides, but there were no means of ascertaining the fact so as to clear it from all doubt, until some window-glass was found at Pompeii, a proof against which no one could contend. Glazed windows seem to have been rare, among the Romans, but it is plain they were not absolutely unknown.

The houses in Pompeii are not more than two stories high, and have no fire-places; but in every apartment that seemed to have been much occupied, was a brasier exactly similar to those with which the Italians now warm their rooms; and in some of these brasiers were found the identical pieces of charcoal that were burning in them at the time the eruption took place.

The streets are narrow, and paved with lava, having a raised footway on each side. The shops are quite open to the street, having two large folding doors like those of a coach-house, and some of them are furnished

with marble tables or counters, on which may be clearly seen the marks of drinking cups, so that they must have been shops where liquors were sold. When the streets were first opened, these cups were discovered, as well as different other vessels for holding wine or whatever else might have been sold at these ancient taverns; but they have all been removed, and placed in a museum at Portici, the town that stands over a part of Pompeii, together with a great variety of curious and interesting relics, among which may be observed many things for domestic purposes, very similar to those in use at the present day. There are gridirons, frying-pans, knives, and silver spoons; but it does not appear that the Romans used forks at their tables, as none were found at Pompeii.

In the doctors' shops were discovered many surgical instruments, made of fine brass; and in a lady's dressing room was a toilet that had withstood the effects of time, and was covered with the ornaments with which she had intended to adorn her person, consisting of rings, necklaces, and ivory bodkins or pins, with carved knobs at the ends, for fastening up the hair.

Those who have visited this disinterred city, generally speak of having been particularly struck with the advertisements that are still chalked upon the walls, containing announcements such as the following, "A combat with wild beasts will be exhibited on such a day." "There is a shop to be let for five years, in such a street," and many others of the same kind, which are curious to read, after the lapse of so many centuries, and present to the imagination a more lively picture of those ancient times than any history can pourtray.

But of all the curiosities of Pompeii, there is not one, perhaps, more worthy of remark than a loaf of bread.

stamped with the name of the owner, "Caius Glanius." The custom of stamping bread, before it was sent to the oven, was in general use, as appears by the number of stamps that are preserved in the Museum; but the loaf, itself, made for the nutriment of an individual who lived in the early ages, and whose very race has long since disappeared from the face of the earth, is a curiosity indeed, and forms a more remarkable connecting link between ancient and modern times, than all the splendid ruins of antiquity that adorn the modern city of Rome.



HISTORY OF SWITZERLAND.

THIS beautiful and interesting country, situated in the very centre of Europe, is remarkable for its diversified and picturesque scenery, and the freedom enjoyed by its inhabitants, from a very early period. The mountains, valleys, and lakes of Switzerland, afford a charming variety of landscape that is not met with in any other European country. Here the vast chain of the Alps, topped with perpetual snows, and glaciers resembling seas of ice, rear their heads above rich vineyards, corn-fields, orchards, and verdant pastures; while dark forests, and roaring torrents, are contrasted with tranquil vales intersected by crystal streams, and thickly studded with pretty cottages, occupied by an industrious and happy people.

In the early ages, Switzerland, then known by the name of Helvetia, was inhabited by several German tribes, who were subjected by the Romans, and under their government attained to a high degree of prosperity and civilisation. The land was then covered with cities and villages; and the Helvetians, ruled by Roman laws, and instructed in Roman arts, carried on a flourishing trade, and improved the cultivation of their country; but when the Goths and other warlike people from the

north of Europe invaded the Roman empire, Helvetia came into the possession of two German nations, the Alemanni, and the Burgundians.

These new conquerors, according to the custom of their country, shared all the land among themselves, and made the people their slaves. Each warrior received from his chief, a piece of ground for a farm, with a sufficient number of the vanquished inhabitants, whom they indiscriminately termed Romans, to cultivate it; and thus the feudal system was introduced into Switzerland. The Burgundians were a more civilized people than the Alemanni, for the latter desolated all the northern and eastern part of the country, and led the wild life of hunters, having no fixed habitations; while the former settled in the fertile pasture-lands to the south and west, where they attended to the pursuits of agriculture, reared numerous flocks and herds, established a regular form of government, and in course of time extended their dominion over that fine country, which from them took the name of Burgundy. They elected kings, and there were also dukes and counts, who exercised different degrees of authority in the territories where they resided.

Every hundred farms constituted what was called a Cent; and over each cent was placed a magistrate, called a Centgraf, to administer justice. Several of these cents formed a Gau or County, as Aragau, and Thurgau, the termination gau, being equivalent to the English shire; and the chief of the gau was entitled Graf, or Count, and was usually the vassal of some powerful duke, who held supreme authority over several counties.

The serfs, in those days, were in much the same state as they are at the present time, in parts of Russia. They cultivated some of the land for their masters, and

the remainder for themselves, working three days in the week on each portion; but the master had a large share of the benefit of all their labour, as they had to carry him every week, out of their own little farms, a fixed quantity of bread, beer, milk, eggs, and poultry; besides a pig, or a sheep, at certain seasons; so that his table was always well supplied by his peasants, who were, therefore, very valuable property.

The Helvetians had been instructed in Christianity by the Romans, but after the extinction of the Roman government, the pagan worship had been again introduced by the Alemanni into that part of the country which they occupied, while the Burgundians continued to cherish the Christian faith.

At this period, there was no country so famed for the learning and piety of its monks as Ireland, from whence missionaries were sent out into all parts of Europe, to teach religion to those ignorant heathens who, for want of knowing better, worshipped idols, which they set up themselves in their temples, and to which they offered sacrifices.

Among the missionaries who came from Ireland to instruct the people of Helvetia, were St. Gall, and St. Columba, two learned monks, who arrived in the beginning of the seventh century, with some of their brethren, in a wild and desolate country, on the borders of lake Constance.

The count of Arbon, who was Overlord of that district, gave them a piece of ground in an uninhabited valley, where they built a cell, planted fruit trees, and grew corn and vegetables. On this spot, about sixty years afterwards, was founded the celebrated monastery of St. Gall, whose abbots became sovereign lords of an

extensive territory in Switzerland. These monks were the first restorers of agriculture and domestic industry in the neglected valleys of this part of Helvetia, for the people built villages near their habitations, and learned from them a number of handicraft arts, as well as that of tilling the land. St. Columba returned to Ireland, but St. Gall remained, and was held in great veneration throughout the territory where he had fixed his abode.

In time, the Christian religion spread all over the country. Monasteries were founded by the nobles, and cities gradually arose, for wherever a large fortified building was erected, whether castle, fortress, or convent, a number of small tenements were almost always built near it, for the sake of protection; and some of these clusters of houses were gradually enlarged and improved; till, in the course of time, they became great towns.

When Charlemagne was emperor of France, Helvetia, which had been subjected by the Franks, and formed a part of his vast dominions, shared in all the advantages of his wise and orderly administration. This great prince, so celebrated in the early history of Europe, spent the first part of his reign in conquering nations; and his later years, in the more pleasing task of promoting their prosperity. He had subdued, with comparative ease, all the German nations, except the Saxons, who maintained a long war with him; but they were obliged to yield at last; and numbers of them were sent; as crown vassals, to colonize the waste lands of Helvetia. These lands were now enclosed and cultivated, clusters of huts were built for the new settlers, sheep and cattle were reared in abundance, much of the forest land was cleared, and vines were planted on the hills.

The women were employed in spinning, weaving, and

sewing, besides taking their part in the lighter labours of the farm; and thus, by the industry of the people, and the good government of an enlightened sovereign, the blessings of peace and plenty, reigned among the mountains of Helvetia.

After the death of Charlemagne, his empire was divided into several parts, each being governed by a different sovereign; and as his successors in France and Germany were neither so wise nor so powerful as he had been, the lords of various provinces took advantage of their weakness, to make themselves independent of the royal authority, and to render their own dignities hereditary, instead of holding them only for life, as had formerly been the case. For example, the emperor Charlemagne had appointed governors in the cities and districts of Helvetia and Burgundy, who were generally called counts; and when they died, other governors were appointed in their places, by the king, without regard to the heirs of the deceased; so that the title of a count did not descend to his son, but belonged to him who filled the office of governor.

These nobles, however, obtained by degrees extensive lands, and great privileges; and, at length, their titles and offices were made hereditary, by which means the greater part of the country was soon under the absolute dominion of a few great families. There was the count of Kyburg, whose castle stood near the lake of Zurich, and who ruled as a sovereign in the province of Thurgau.

There was also the lord of Rapperschwyl, who held a large domain, with a castle and a vast forest on the west of lake Uri, reaching as far as the alps of St. Gothard; and other lords, feeling now that the land was their own, built castles, abbeys, and villages, in all the central

valleys. They lived in the rude style of the ancient German barons, their halls being furnished with oaken tables and benches, and their cloaks serving for covering when they laid themselves down to rest on beds of rushes. War was the business of their lives, and a plentifully-furnished board constituted their chief enjoyment; therefore, it is recorded that when the Burgundians invaded Italy, after the death of Charles the Fat, the Italians took a great dislike to them, on account of their excessive eating and drinking.

The feasts of the nobles were enlivened by the songs of minstrels, called Minnesingers, whose verses were usually in praise of the nobleman at whose table they were entertained, and therefore seldom failed to please him, and excite the applause of his guests.

As to the ladies, we hear little about them, but may conclude that they spent their time, like all the high born dames of those days, in spinning, sewing, and arranging the affairs of the household.

As the royal authority was now scarcely acknowledged in Helvetia, the free farmers, who had formerly held their lands of the crown, found it necessary, for the security of their persons and property, to attach themselves either to some baronial domain or monastery, preferring to become the vassals of those who had power to protect them, rather than to remain quite free, without the benefit of such protection.

A free cultivator, possessed of a small farm, would go to the count or the abbot of the district in which he resided, and offer to give up his land and all upon it, and to receive it back as a fief, for which he would engage to pay the customary dues, and perform certain services agreed upon between himself and the chief he had chosen, who was as

much bound to perform his part of the contract as his vassal. It was thus the feudal system was extended in Helvetia, and that the barons and abbots gained large territories, and increased the number of their dependants.

About sixty-five years after the death of Charlemagne, there was a nobleman of Burgundy, named count Boson, who, seeing that the king of France was very much occupied with his own troubles, in consequence of the Norman invasion, and disputes with the emperor of Germany respecting the crown, took advantage of these circumstances, to call together an assembly of the nobles and clergy of the Burgundian states, and persuade them to elect him king of Burgundy.

There had been no kings of Burgundy since the time of Clovis, the first Christian king of France, who conquered that country, and annexed it to his dominions, of which it remained a part for several centuries. Boson, however, restored the regal title, and established his court at Arles, in the south of France, which caused some of his successors to be called kings of Arles. His dominions comprehended a part of the ancient Helvetia, with some of the southern provinces of France, and was called Lower Burgundy; but another kingdom was soon afterwards founded by Rodolf, count of western Helvetia, who imitated the example of Boson, and was, in a similar manner, elected king of Upper Burgundy, which included all Switzerland, as far as the river Reuss, which formed its boundary.

These two kingdoms were afterwards united into one; but it was another state, also called Burgundy, and said to have been founded by a brother of Boson, that was the great fief of France, belonging to the famous dukes of Burgundy, one of whom, Charles the Bold, is

celebrated in Swiss as well as in French history, as we shall find.

In the meantime, the less civilised part of Helvetia, which had formerly been occupied by the Alemanni, was subject to the emperor of Germany, and called, on that account, German Helvetia. It comprehended the territories lying between the river Reuss and lake Constance, the principal districts being Zurich and Thurgau, which were held in fief by great noblemen, who were vassals of the German emperors. But there were some mountainous districts to the south of those cantons, inhabited by a free race of shepherds, who were governed by their own simple laws, and dwelt in happy obscurity, subject neither to kings nor feudal barons. There were no castles, no lords, in these isolated wilds, which were called the forest cantons, and were destined hereafter to be the scene of the most important, as well as most interesting events in the history of Switzerland.

In the early part of the tenth century, Europe was invaded by hordes of Tartars from the east, who came through Russia into Poland, spreading terror every where, by their barbarous mode of warfare. They were called Huns, by some; and Magyars, by others; but their more general denomination was Tartars, and they were of the same race of people as those who established the kingdom of Hungary. In consequence of the repeated invasions of these ferocious tribes, the emperors began to fortify the cities with strong walls and ditches, and to grant the inhabitants such charters as might best enable them to defend themselves against sudden attacks of the enemy.

Henry the First, of Germany, surnamed the Fowler, built a strong wall round the town of Zurich, which was,

at that period, the largest and most populous city in the German part of Helvetia; and at the same time, he bestowed great privileges on the citizens, among which was that of electing their own magistrates, and of making their own municipal laws. Similar rights were granted by the same wise and brave prince, to many other imperial towns, that is, towns which belonged to the crown, and were not in vassalage to any feudal lord. Zurich had become a place of considerable trade, as most of the commerce between Italy and Germany was carried on there.

The Lombard merchants, as the Italians were then generally called, travelled on mules, by a road across the mountains; and after the town of Zurich was strengthened by fortifications, its traffic increased so much, that regular fairs and markets were established in it, and inns built for the accommodation of those who came thither on business.

About the same time, the abbot of St. Gall, who was lord of vast domains to the east of Zurich, instituted a market in his chief town of Roschack, and some of the counts, and superiors of other convents, did the same, so that the country people could take the produce of their farms to market, to sell; and could buy in the towns whatever they wanted, instead of making every thing at home, as they had been accustomed to do.

In course of time, the emperors of Germany came to be chosen sovereigns of the two kingdoms of Burgundy; and thus all Helvetia became subject to the German empire, about the commencement of the eleventh century. The emperors, however, had no more real authority in this country, than they had in Italy, for the nobles were all powerful, and every one had his strong castle.

and his vassal army to defend it. These nobles derived a considerable revenue from the tolls and duties which they obliged all merchants and travellers of every description to pay, on passing through their domains.

When the unfortunate monarch, Henry the Fourth, was emperor of Germany, the whole of the German empire was disturbed by the quarrel that arose between that prince and the pope, respecting the right of investing bishops and abbots with their benefices. In the wars that followed, the nobles and clergy of Helvetia took a part, some engaging on one side, some on the other; for the great churchmen were, in those days, as warlike as the barons, and never scrupled to go to battle at the head of their armed vassals.

In the midst of these troubles, the emperor thought it best to secure a powerful ally in Helvetia, by giving away the sovereignty to Berthold, duke of Zahringen, a good, as well as a great, nobleman, whose family reigned over the country nearly two hundred years, and greatly improved it by their wise and beneficent government. They built new towns, encouraged various arts and manufactures, and protected the peasantry from the oppressions of the nobility; and they checked, in a great measure, that system of private warfare among the barons, which was so hurtful to the prosperity of most European states during the middle ages. We may judge of the state of the times, by the fact that when Duke Berthold the Fourth, of Zahringen, was building the town of Freyburg, in 1178, the workmen employed in raising the walls around it, were obliged to have soldiers to protect them.

Freyburg was built on a steep hill, as a place of security for the freemen of the surrounding districts, and

very soon became a town of great importance, as many of the inferior nobles enrolled their names as citizens, and lived within the walls. Another great city, which owed its foundation to the Zahringen dukes, was Berne; which, from its commencement, was a republic of free and independent gentlemen, some of whom built whole streets at their own expense, with handsome houses for themselves. The duke, himself, resided at Zurich; and, as prince of the country, received a tax on every house throughout his dominions, a duty on all goods brought for sale, and a toll on roads and bridges.

The free towns were, in general, governed by two councils, one formed of nobles, and the other of tradespeople; and the latter had also the right of electing certain magistrates, called Avoyers, whose duty it was to watch that the liberties of the citizens were not infringed on. But the good dukes of Zahringen never sought to lessen the privileges of the people; on the contrary, they took every occasion of adding to them, the reign of each prince being distinguished by some useful work, or beneficent act, such as clearing and bringing under cultivation tracts of waste land; building walls round villages that had become large enough to rank as towns; establishing new manufactures, and making such laws as were best calculated to promote the general prosperity.

The last duke of Zahringen, Berthold the Fifth, died in the year 1218, when the elegant and accomplished Frederick the Second was emperor of Germany. As Berthold left no son to succeed him, Helvetia was again attached to the German empire; but the cities were allowed to preserve their rights, and, for the most part, might now be considered in the light of free commercial

republics. Berthold had an only sister, named Agnes, who married the count Ulric, of Kyburg, and came into possession of all her brother's hereditary estates, which were very extensive. The grandson of this lady was the celebrated Rodolf of Hapsburg, emperor of Germany, and founder of the present illustrious house of Austria.

HOUSE OF HAPSBURG.

1213 TO 1291.

RODOLF, of Hapsburg, one of the most distinguished heroes of the middle ages, was descended from the ancient family of Austria, which, in the time of Charlemagne, appears to have enjoyed a high degree of power and territory; but the states of the nobles, in those early times, and even their titles, were so frequently changed, from various causes, that some of the descendants of this house were counts of Alsace, others dukes of Swabia, and others dukes of Lorraine.

In the reign of Otho the First, of Germany, there was a certain count of Alsace, named Gontram, who, in consequence of some act of disobedience towards the emperor, who was his liege lord, was deprived of all his possessions, except a small patrimonial estate in Aargau, near the Reuss. He assumed, however, the title of count of Altenburg, was still treated with great respect

by his tenants; and several freeholders, according to the custom of the times, placed themselves under his protection, and became his vassals.

Now this kind of vassalage did not extend any farther than the paying of certain fees, and the serving the count in his wars; but, in addition to these duties, which they were bound to perform, the tenants, of their own free will, and perhaps with a view of pleasing their new lord, lent their aid in tilling his fields, and gathering in his harvests.

At first, these services were regarded as a favour, which in truth they were; but after a time, the count began to look upon them as a duty, and if any of his vassals neglected to come in seed or harvest time, he sent to require their attendance in a very peremptory manner. After a time, he proceeded to impose contributions on them, as if they had been serfs, making them bring eggs, poultry, and other things to his castle; and if they did not do so, he sent his armed followers to force them to submit, or turn them out of their cottages.

When Gontram died, his son, count Lancelin, behaved with still greater tyranny towards the peasants than his father had done, so that they were reduced to a most miserable condition.

Radbod, the son of Lancelin, succeeded to his father's domains, and married the lady Ida, a niece of Hugh Capet, the king of France. When Ida became aware of the unjust and cruel acts that had been committed by the counts of Altenburg, and found that her husband was a tyrant also, she endeavoured to make some atonement for their sins by building a convent at Muri, an

estate which Radbod had given her as a dowry on their marriage.

This convent, called the Abbey of Muri, has always been one of the richest and most flourishing of the religious establishments in Switzerland. The lady Ida endowed it with the surrounding lands, and the abbot of Muri gave to every peasant who came to settle there, a piece of ground, a hut, a plough, a cart, and four oxen, with pigs, fowls, seeds of various kinds, and sufficient tools to commence his labours.

In return for these benefits, each peasant agreed to plough, sow, and reap four acres of the abbey lands, in which he was assisted by his wife and children; he also engaged to carry letters and messages for the monks, to bring their wine from Alsace, to give lodging three nights in a year to guests who came to the abbey, and to keep watch one night, for which latter service he was to receive half a loaf and a glass of beer. He had also to furnish a contribution of cloth, and a fixed quantity of the produce of his land.

The vassals of the monks were usually much better off than those of the barons, as they enjoyed more peace and were less oppressed by the exactions of their superiors.

Count Radbod built a small castle on a height, which rises above the river Aar, and gave it the name of Hapsburg, a word that had some reference to its being situated on his family estate. It was erected in the year 1020, after which time, the counts of Altenburg called themselves counts of Hapsburg. Their territories were but small, until nearly two centuries, after the time of Radbod, when the count of Hapsburg married the lady Hedwiga

daughter of Ulric, the powerful count of Kyburg, and Agnes, sister of the last duke of Zahringen.

This alliance, in course of time, gave to the house of Hapsburg extensive possessions in Switzerland, for the countess Agnes left no sons to inherit the vast domains belonging to the family of Kyburg, which, in consequence, fell to the share of Rodolf of Hapsburgh, but not till he was somewhat advanced in years. The father of Rodolf died in the Holy Land, leaving his son but a very small inheritance, which he, according to the spirit of the age, endeavoured to extend by martial enterprise. He was one of the bravest knights of his time, and much beloved for the frankness of his manners and the kindness of his heart.

At this period, the whole empire of Germany was in a sad state of confusion, owing to the civil wars that arose on the death of Conrad the Fourth, who was the last sovereign of his race. For twenty years, the crown was disputed among several candidates, and during that time, the laws were so utterly neglected, that lives and property were equally insecure. The nobles made a pastime of plunder, and sent out their bands of armed vassals in all directions, to rob on the highways, and commit every kind of depredation. All trade was suspended, for no merchants could venture to bring their goods into the country; and when the clergy, or more respectable nobles had occasion to make a journey, they travelled with a strong escort, even along the most frequented roads.

It was on one of these occasions, that Rodolf of Hapsburg became known to the archbishop of Mentz, by whose interest he was afterwards elected emperor of Germany. The archbishop having occasion to go to

Rome, wanted an efficient guard to protect him on the way, and as there were few persons to be trusted in those unhappy times, he sent to request assistance of Rodolf, of Hapsburg, who was known to be an honourable and valiant knight.

Rodolf selected some of his bravest men, and putting himself at their head, escorted the venerable prelate to the confines of the empire, discoursing all the way in the most agreeable manner possible, without forgetting for an instant the respect that was due to a dignitary of the church. The archbishop was indeed so pleased with his companion, that he parted from him with much regret; and said, in taking leave, "I shall never forget your kindness, and I hope some day to have an opportunity of repaying it."

The service, however, had been performed in the true spirit of chivalry, unsullied by any motive of self-interest, nor did the brave knight anticipate that it would, in the end, gain him the imperial crown.

Rodolf had served with distinction in the armies of the emperor Frederick the Second, and of Ottocar, king of Bohemia; and he was so highly esteemed in Helvetia, that many towns and free districts placed themselves under his protection, as a security against other nobles; and thus his power and possessions were materially increased.

Among these were the three forest cantons which I have before mentioned, and which were known by the names of Uri, Schwytz, and Unterwalden. Rodolf's grandfather had been appointed Vogt, or imperial governor of these cantons, by Frederick the Second; but the people had been accustomed to live in such entire freedom, that they begged the emperor to release them

from the authority of a vogt, which he was induced to do in return for their services in his Italian wars; but when the empire fell into the state of anarchy which I have described, and there was no emperor to protect their liberties, they voluntarily offered to bestow on count Rodolf the dignity of vogt, which his grandfather had held, and thus he became guardian of the forest cantons.

The citizens of Zurich, about the same time, sent to Rodolf, requesting that he would take upon himself the office of military governor of their city; so that he might now be considered as a powerful nobleman in Helvetia, although he was not much known in Germany.

In the meantime, the increasing troubles of the empire, caused the electors to assemble at Frankfort, with the determination of electing an emperor; and then it was that the archbishop of Mentz spoke in such high terms of Rodolf of Hapsburg, that it was agreed unanimously that he was the fittest man to be placed at the head of the state, and the election was determined accordingly.

It happened, that Rodolf had been for some time at variance with the bishop of Basle; and some of his dependants had taken advantage of that circumstance, to behave very rudely to many of the citizens and their ladies at the feast of the carnival. Their behaviour being resented as it deserved, an affray took place, and several young noblemen were killed. Rodolf, not being aware of the provocation that had led to this melancholy catastrophe, was very much enraged at the conduct of the burghers, and laid siege to the city.

It was just at this period, that the news arrived of his election to the imperial throne; on which the citizens of Basle, in the utmost astonishment, threw open their

gates, and were the first to take the oath of allegiance to the new emperor. This event happened in the year 1273, when Rodolf was between fifty and sixty years of age.

There are many pleasing stories related of him, and among others, that as he was once riding in a lonely part of the country, he saw a priest walking with great difficulty along a very bad road, and on entering into conversation with him, found that he was on his way to administer the sacrament to a poor man who was dying. The count instantly dismounted, and gave his horse to the priest, saying, that it did not become him to be riding at his ease, while a minister of God was toiling along so wearying a path, on foot, to his holy errand.

This little anecdote is made the subject of a very pretty German ballad, written by the celebrated Schiller, in which the poet introduces, at Rodolf's coronation feast, an aged minstrel, with a long white beard and flowing robes, who, to the great astonishment of the monarch, relates in verse the incident above alluded to, which happened many years before, and had long been forgotten by Rodolf, who, however, on regarding the minstrel more attentively, recognised the very priest to whom he had piously surrendered his favourite steed. Such ballads are very common among the Swiss and German peasantry, who sing them with much taste and feeling.

Rodolf was now the greatest sovereign in all Europe, yet notwithstanding the cares inseparable from his elevated station, he did not forget the inhabitants of his own native valleys, who found in him a beneficent prince and faithful protector.

All the chief cities of Helvetia enjoyed as much freedom

as the Italian republics, and were secured, by fresh charters, from future oppression; while the citizens, to evince their gratitude, were always ready to assist the emperor with men and money.

This happy state of things lasted as long as the good Rodolf occupied the throne. The people of all ranks were homely in their mode of living; but their domestic habits were social, and their amusements of a joyous character, such as dancing and singing; while the young men were also fond of archery, and various athletic sports.

There were numbers of wandering minstrels in those days, who roamed with their harps or bagpipes from place to place, and were sure to find a welcome at the houses of all the rich burghers, as well as at the castles of the great; and from them the young people learned many songs and legends of the country, besides numerous romantic tales of the crusades; a favourite theme with all the bards of that time, and highly interesting to their hearers, but more especially to those who had some dear friend absent in the Holy Land.

When Rodolf grew very old, his son Albert, whom he had made duke of Austria, persuaded him to purchase a great many lands in Helvetia, of different nobles and abbots.

Albert of Austria was an arbitrary, ambitious prince, and his secret motive was to obtain, by degrees, so extensive a dominion in Helvetia, that he might be able to transform the whole country into a duchy, for one of his sons. The attempt of Albert of Austria to infringe on the liberties of the people of Helvetia, gave rise to the well known story of William Tell, which is probably

mixed up with much fiction, although there can be little doubt that it is true in all the principal circumstances.

The inhabitants of those obscure regions, distinguished by the name of the Forest Cantons, still dwelt in happy simplicity among their native mountains; and although nominally subject to the empire, continued to enjoy the most perfect liberty; until the death of Rodolf, and the accession of the haughty and ambitious Albert, changed the face of affairs throughout the whole country, and more especially in the hitherto free districts of Uri, Schwytz, and Unterwalden.

At a former period, these three cantons had only one chief magistrate and one church among them; but now, each formed a separate community, with a head ruler, chosen from among the elders, and called the Landamman, and each had its own chief town or borough, with a church, and a regular market-place; besides several villages, and two or three castles, built by noblemen, who came there to share the freedom of the happy mountaineers.

Once a year, all the male population of the three cantons, held an assemblage in a large field, to elect new magistrates, and to discuss any important matters relative to the general benefit; for although they had separated themselves into three states, they were still in close alliance for mutual support against any encroachment on their liberties. Every individual above the age of fifteen, had a right to vote at the public assemblies, and to deliver his opinions freely; for in that simple state of society all men were equally independent, nor was any one restrained from expressing his sentiments by the fear of offending a superior.

They led a pastoral life, their wealth consisting of

their cattle, sheep, and goats, for which they had abundance of pasturage, and many families lived in isolated cottages, among the Alpine heights, where many a fertile and delightful spot invited the hardy peasant to fix his abode. But the peace of these shepherds of the Alps was about to be invaded in a most unjustifiable manner, and the freedom they had so long enjoyed to be suddenly and violently suppressed.

Among the estates purchased by the emperor Rodolf for his son Albert, were some lands belonging to the abbey of Murbach, containing the town of Lucerne, and two or three villages which stood on the frontiers, rather within the boundary of one of the forest cantons. Although these villages belonged to the Abbot of Murbach, yet they were built on the free lands of the canton of Schwytz; and as he consented to exchange these territories for some lands in Alsace, Albert of Austria became lord of Lucerne, as well as of the villages on the confines of the free cantons. This circumstance caused a considerable degree of alarm among the inhabitants of these districts, for although the abbot of Murbach had never attempted to infringe on their rights, they were by no means sure that the emperor would act with equal moderation; and the event proved that their fears were not groundless.

No sooner was Albert seated on the throne, than he began to take steps for the subjugation of Helvetia, which, as I said before, he was desirous of forming into a principality for one of his sons. But this was not to be done without much violence, for a great part of the country belonged, of right, to his nephew, John of Hapsburg, the son of his eldest brother, who was dead. This young man, who was still a minor, was heir to all

the estates belonging to the house of Hapsburg, which at that time extended over a large portion of the country; for Rodolf had inherited the vast domains of his two uncles, the brothers of his mother, who died without children.

The emperor Albert, although he was the guardian of his nephew, wickedly determined to rob him of his inheritance, and thus at once to gain possession of the greater part of Helvetia; and in the meantime, he went to war with some of the free towns, and refused to confirm the rights of the forest cantons, as granted to them by Frederick the Second. After many remonstrances on the part of the people, and threats on that of the emperor, an Austrian governor, with a sufficient number of soldiers to enforce his authority, was sent to each of the towns of Altorf and Sarnen, the former being the capital of Uri, the latter of Unterwalden.

These governors, one of whom was the celebrated Hermann Gessler, were arbitrary, unfeeling men, who not only burthened the people with heavy taxes, a species of oppression to which they had never been accustomed, but frequently seized on their property, and permitted the soldiers to treat them in the most insulting manner. On one occasion, a young farmer, called Arnold of Melchthal, for some trifling offence, had a handsome team of oxen taken from his plough, by a servant of the governor of Sarnen, who told him that strong fellows like him ought to draw their ploughs themselves. Arnold, less exasperated at the loss of his oxen than at the insolence of the man, struck him a violent blow, which broke one of his fingers; and then, to escape the consequences of his imprudence, fled to the most inaccessible part of the mountains. The governor sent to

the father of the fugitive, desiring that he would point out the place where his son was concealed; and when the old man declared he did not know, which was the truth, as Arnold had held no communication with his family since the unfortunate occurrence took place, the cruel tyrant had his eyes put out, and sent him, in that melancholy condition, to his home.

But it would be an endless task, to relate all the acts of oppression which drove the people of these once happy valleys to form a confederacy for the recovery of their liberty. The leaders of the projected revolt were, young Arnold of Melchthal, who had his aged father's wrongs to revenge as well as his own; Werner Stauffacher, a landowner of Schwytz; and Walter Furst, of Uri, the father-in-law of the famous William Tell, who was also a leading character among the patriots, being one of thirty who entered into a solemn league for the deliverance of their country.

These patriotic men held their meetings at night, in a lonely valley sheltered by the rocks, where they arranged their plans; but before they were ready to carry them into execution, an incident is stated to have occurred which brought about the catastrophe sooner than they had intended. William Tell, a farmer or herdsman residing near Altorf, on going into the town, one market-day, was commanded by the soldiers to bow down before the ducal cap of Austria, which Gessler had ordered to be set up on a pole in the market-place, in order that all the people might perform this degrading act of homage.

If this story be true, it is probable that the governor suspected there was a plot in agitation, and took this means of discovering who were the most rebellious per-



Painted by Gilbert.

Engraved by Davenport.

WILLIAM TELL AND THE OTHER SWISS PATRIOTS HOLDING THEIR NIGHTLY MEETINGS.
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mitted the boatmen to unbind the prisoner, and place him at the helm, as he was known to be very skilful in the management of a vessel under such circumstances.

Tell quietly set about his task, and guided the boat steadily for some time, when suddenly he pushed it against a part of the rocks, where a slight projection afforded him a bare footing, of which, from an intimate knowledge of the spot, he could easily avail himself to favour his escape; wherefore, starting up, he seized his bow and arrow, leaped on the rugged shelf, and was out of sight in a moment. Onward he went, at his swiftest speed, till he reached a cave near the point where he knew the governor must land, if he should escape the fury of the waves, and there he awaited the arrival of his destined victim, who soon appeared, walking with hurried steps towards the castle; when, in passing near the cave, a shaft aimed by the unerring hand of the archer, pierced him to the heart, and he fell to rise no more.

Such is the tale related by the historians of the country, and celebrated in many old German ballads; but whether all, or only a part of the circumstances are founded on facts, I believe there is no one now who can say with certainty. The greatest proofs of its authenticity are, two chapels still in existence, erected to the memory of the hero Tell, and decorated with paintings of some of his most remarkable exploits; and it is also well known, that the Swiss were long in the habit of making pilgrimages to one of these buildings, which was erected on the rock where he saved himself by leaping on shore.

The death of Gessler made it necessary for the insurgents to hasten the execution of their plot; and the

approaching new-year's day was fixed for that purpose. It does not appear that any suspicion of a general rising was entertained by the government, as the act of Tell was supposed to have been the effect of his own private feelings, unconnected with the public grievances; therefore, on the first morning of the new year of 1308, when the governor of Sarnen had left his castle, to repair to church; and met, on his road, a number of peasants bringing to him the customary offerings of sheep, fowls, eggs, wine, &c., he desired them to go up to the castle with their presents, and proceeded on his way to mass.

This was exactly what they wanted, such an opportunity being essential to the success of their schemes, for it was a great point in their enterprise to gain possession of the fortresses, during his absence, which could only be done by the adoption of stratagem. Each man had a long staff in his hand, which, however, excited no surprise, as it was very usual for a peasant to carry a staff to help him to climb the rocks, and leap over chasms; but every one of them had, besides, an iron pointed weapon concealed under his jacket, to fix on the top of the staff, which gave it the property of a bayonet or a pike; and thus armed, they approached the castle gates, which were no sooner opened, than one of the band blew a note on his horn, as a signal to a number of confederates stationed in ambush near the spot. The whole party rushed into the castle, made all the soldiers prisoners, and were thus in possession of the principal fortress, without having shed a single drop of blood.

The entire population of the three cantons now boldly came forward in the common cause of liberty; the governor fled; the rest of the fortresses were taken with

very little opposition; and the brave leaders of the revolt caused all the Austrian troops to be conducted under a strong escort to the frontiers, and then set at liberty, on condition that they should never return. The castles were then pulled down, bonfires were lighted on all the heights, and on the following Sunday, deputies from the three cantons met at one of the churches to return thanks to the Almighty for having permitted them to accomplish the revolution without bloodshed, and also without violating the rights of the house of Hapsburg, for which they expressed a great veneration.

As soon as Albert received intelligence of the revolt in the forest cantons, he made preparations for going to war with them, and entered his Helvetian dominions with highly hostile intentions, when his own career was suddenly terminated by assassination.

His nephew, John of Hapsburg, who was now of age, had in vain desired to be put in possession of his patrimonial estates, and at length suspecting, with good reason, that his uncle did not mean to give them up, he conspired with some other noblemen, who had their own causes of complaint, to take away the life of the emperor, who was stabbed by three of the conspirators, one of whom was his nephew, at the foot of the hill on which stood the castle of Hapsburg.

Albert breathed his last sigh in the arms of a woman who happened to be passing by at the time, while the assassins fled to the forest cantons, hoping there to find safety and assistance; but the noble spirited mountaineers would not give them protection, scorning to countenance the wicked deed of which they had been guilty, although it had freed them from their greatest enemy. One of the murderers was taken, and put to a cruel, lingering

death; but I do not know what became of John of Hapsburg, whose title descended to another branch of his family.

The chief avenger of Albert's death was his daughter Agnes, queen of Hungary, whose cruelties on this occasion have given a disgraceful celebrity to her name. This merciless woman caused whole families to be put to death, and even the vassals and peasants belonging to them, because their chiefs were accused of having been concerned in the murder of the emperor.

It is a painful task to record scenes of horror and bloodshed, therefore, I shall only make a slight mention of the cruel deeds of Agnes of Austria, which it is to be hoped have been somewhat exaggerated by the historians of the times, who say that sixty-three knights were beheaded at one time; and that more than a thousand persons, many of them women and children, were sacrificed to her revenge.

Some of the chief nobles of Helvetia, with their wives and families, were banished, their castles burnt down, and their estates confiscated to the house of Austria, of which, Frederick, eldest son of the late emperor, was now the head. Agnes was enabled to carry on her persecution of the Helvetians, by the aid of her own Hungarian troops, and the armies of her brothers Frederick and Leopold, whom she had persuaded to assist her; and after all her evil deeds, she founded the convent of Konigsfelden, on the spot where her father died, and passed nearly fifty years of her life within its walls; but even in religious retirement, she still retained the harshness of character that had marked her worldly career, and was noted as being the most severe abbess that had ever presided over a religious community.

For seven years after the expulsion of the Austrians from the forest cantons, those provinces were left unmolested, till, on the death of the emperor, Henry the Seventh, who had been elected in preference to Frederick of Austria, the latter again became a candidate for the throne, and was opposed by some of the cities and districts of Helvetia, among which were Uri, Schwytz, and Unterwalden. He was not elected, and being angry at this failure, resolved to direct his resentment against the forest cantons.

For this purpose, he raised a considerable force, and entrusted the command of it to his brother Leopold, who marched into the canton of Schwytz, so secure of victory, that his men had provided themselves with ropes, to tie together the fat oxen which each reckoned to carry away as his share of the plunder. But their hopes were disappointed, for they were totally defeated in a narrow pass, called Morgarten, situated between a lake and a mountain, where a great number of them were killed with heavy stones, rolled down upon them by a body of men posted on the heights.

After this victory, the inhabitants of the three cantons entered into a fresh compact for the preservation of their liberty, and framed a new body of laws to be binding on all, and on any other cantons that might afterwards join them; and as the men of Schwytz had been foremost in the fight at Morgarten, the whole confederacy adopted the general name of Schwytzers, or Swiss, and as other cantons joined the league, they did the same, till at last all the people were called Swiss, and the country became known by the name of Switzerland.

FORMATION OF THE SWISS CONFEDERACY.

1315 TO 1302.

THE events related in the foregoing chapter were but the beginning of a series of wars between the dukes of Austria and the people of Switzerland, who gradually emancipated themselves from subjection to those princes, and in time became a free and independent people. The Swiss were not cruel in these wars. They fought for liberty, and never stained a victory by unnecessary violence. Private property was conscientiously respected by them, no injuries were offered by them to the helpless, and when a battle was over, they desisted from shedding blood.

The next grand point in the history of Switzerland, is the union of five of the chief provinces with the forest cantons, which together formed a powerful league, called by other nations the Swiss confederacy. They were admitted as members of the league, one by one, at different periods, and under various circumstances; but the great object of all was to secure themselves against the authority of the house of Austria.

During the contests caused by the injustice of Albert towards his nephew, and the numerous confiscations that took place during the persecution of the nobles by

the queen Agnes, the greater part of Switzerland had become subject to the dukes of Austria, and several towns were, on that account, as being in vassalage to those princes, compelled to bear arms against the forest cantons, when they would much rather have been at peace with them. The citizens of Lucerne were in this unhappy situation, which was the more injurious to them, because their prosperity depended, in great measure, on their trade with the Italians, which was stopped by the war, as the road to Italy lay through the forest cantons, and across mount St. Gothard.

The people, therefore, being much distressed by the suspension of their commerce, made peace, without consulting the duke, and were admitted to join the Swiss confederacy, on condition of subscribing to all the laws and regulations which the three cantons had made for themselves.

The next city that joined the alliance was Zurich, a rich and populous manufacturing town, which had hitherto been governed as a free republic. The principal citizens of Zurich were opulent tradespeople, and they had flourishing manufactures of silk, cotton, linen, muslins, and leather, which gave employment to the lower orders, and greatly increased the wealth and prosperity of the whole population.

The government was composed of four noblemen, and eight of the most influential burghers, who remained in office four months, and then had the liberty of choosing their own successors; but as the members of the council had the power of levying taxes, and were not accountable for the use they made of the public money, it sometimes happened that they abused their trust; besides which they generally nominated persons of their

own families to succeed them, without considering whether they were fit men to govern the state.

The burghers, at last, grew dissatisfied, and determined to have a new constitution, which should give the citizens the liberty of choosing the members of the council, and a burgomaster to be invested with the chief authority.

An insurrection took place, headed by a citizen, named Braun, who led a party of armed burghers to the town hall, and expelled, by force, the members of the council, who were subsequently banished from the canton. Braun then drew up a plan for a new form of government. He first divided the artisans and traders into guilds or companies, each company having its own particular privileges, and some person of wealth and influence being at its head. The chiefs of the guilds, with an equal number of nobles to be re-elected every six months were to form the council of state, and Braun himself was appointed burgomaster for life, with very extensive powers.

This revolution took place in 1336, and the city, with its surrounding territory, prospered under the new form of government, which lasted fourteen years, when an unexpected event caused the people of Zurich to enter into the alliance of the Swiss cantons.

The banished members of the old council had sought refuge in the castles of the neighbouring nobles, hoping to recover their authority, and were especially befriended by a certain count of Rapperschwyl, who was at war with another nobleman, called the count of Toggenburg; therefore, as the former supported the exiles, the latter assisted the citizens of Zurich in opposing their return, and several battles were fought, till at length Rappers-

chwyl was killed, and nothing more was heard of the exiles for several years, when some of them obtained leave to return to their native city.

Not long afterwards, a plot against the burgomaster and senate was discovered by a baker's boy, and made known to Braun, who instantly put on his armour and summoned the citizens to arms.

The chief conspirators had admitted so great a number of confederates into the town, that they formed quite a large band, and as the gates were closed and guarded to prevent their escape, they fought with the citizens in the market-place, and were all either killed or made prisoners.

The burgomaster then marched against the new lord of Rapperschwyl, and having taken his castle by storm, razed it to the ground, that it might no longer afford shelter and protection to the malcontents.

Albert, duke of Austria, to whom the lord of Rapperschwyl was nearly related, was so deeply offended at the conduct of the Zurichers, that he declared war against them, on which they renounced their allegiance to him, and joined the Swiss confederacy. This famous league now consisted of five cantons, of which Zurich was considered as the chief on account of its superior wealth and importance.

Duke Albert now demanded that the people of Zurich should rebuild the castle they had destroyed; and on their refusal, laid siege to the city. The Swiss hastened to the relief of their new allies, while the duke claimed the assistance of the canton of Glaris, a province that was subject to the abbey of Seckingen, and under the protection of the emperor; therefore, the people replied that the duke of Austria had no right to call upon them

to take up arms in his private wars. But the duke, being warden of the said abbey of Seckingen, insisted that it was their duty on that account to help him; and this dispute caused the people of Glaris to join the Swiss confederation, in 1351.

Shortly after the union of Glaris, the two cantons of Zug and Berne became members of the league; and these eight provinces, usually called the eight old cantons, constituted, for more than a century, the whole of the Swiss republic; and they always maintained a superiority over those who were afterwards associated with them.

The contest between the new republic and the house of Austria continued, with some short intervals of peace, for a very long time; the Austrian princes naturally wishing to recover their former authority, while the Swiss were as resolutely determined to defend their newly-acquired liberties. By degrees, however, a great many lordships, that had been held in vassalage of the dukes of Austria, came into possession of the Swiss cantons, their lords being either induced to sell them for want of money, or finding it expedient, on some account or other, to place themselves under the protection of the republic, which thus grew more and more powerful, while the influence of the Austrian princes was gradually diminished.

In the early part of the fifteenth century, the city of Berne being destroyed by an accidental fire, was rebuilt of stone, with broad streets, handsome houses, and strong walls, so that it was the finest town in all Switzerland; and about the same time a great fair was established at Zurich, to be held every year at Whitsuntide.

This fair attracted numbers of foreign merchants, and

greatly increased the wealth and importance of the city. Still, in the midst of their prosperity, the Swiss retained the simplicity of manners for which they have always been remarkable. The nobles mixed familiarly with the burghers and peasants, all of whom felt themselves at liberty to express their opinions freely on public affairs; and the highest members of the council might be seen at their doors in the evening, with their long beards, and their homely grey or brown coats, conversing with their neighbours, and exchanging friendly greetings with the passers by.

The great men of Switzerland, at that period, looked like respectable country farmers, and their mode of living corresponded exactly with their appearance. Unfortunately, however, dissensions arose among the allied cantons, which led to that worst of all evils, civil warfare. The quarrel was occasioned by the death of the last count of Toggenburg, who had been a freeman of the city of Zurich, but was also a burgher of Schwytz; therefore, as he left no heir to inherit his estates, they were claimed by the Zurichers, although many of the late count's vassals came forward to assert that their master had desired, on his death bed, that his territories should be united to Schwytz, and his vassals be constituted burghers of that canton.

Now it was one of the laws of the Swiss confederacy that if any dispute should arise between two or more of the cantons, it should be settled by arbitration. Yet the burgomaster of Zurich, a violent, ambitious man, named Stussi, refused to submit to this equitable mode of deciding the question, but chose rather to have recourse to arms, and actually entered into an alliance with the emperor Frederick the Third, and Sigismund, duke of

Austria, against the rest of the Swiss cantons, thus dishonourably breaking the league, and, as it were, becoming a traitor to his country.

The Austrian princes were not sorry to have such an opportunity of trying to re-conquer some of the domains formerly possessed by their ancestors in Switzerland, they, therefore, willingly lent their aid to the people of Zurich, who declared war against their late allies, and fought several desperate battles with them; till, at length, they sustained a total defeat, and their burgomaster, who had been the cause of all the mischief, was slain.

In consequence of this event, Sigismund of Austria wrote to the king of France to request his assistance in subduing these bold mountaineers. The sovereign to whom he applied was Charles the Seventh, who had long been engaged in a civil war for the recovery of his crown, and having succeeded, he was anxious to get rid of a number of troublesome soldiers, who called themselves Free Companies, and when not engaged in military service, usually turned freebooters, and became a pest to the country.

As soon, therefore, as the king received the letter of the Austrian prince, he collected all these troops, and giving the command of them to his son, the dauphin, afterwards Louis the Eleventh, he sent them to fight against the Swiss. They first laid siege to the rich and flourishing city of Basle, a free republic, which was not yet allied to the Swiss cantons, but was on such very friendly terms with them, that the senate immediately sent a deputation to solicit their aid in this emergency. A band of twelve hundred men hastened towards the besieged city, but were intercepted in a neighbouring plain by as many thousands of the enemy,

when a most obstinate engagement took place, which lasted ten hours, notwithstanding the disparity of numbers, there being at least ten to one. The Swiss were all killed; but the undaunted bravery they had exhibited, impressed the dauphin with so high an opinion of the valour of the whole nation, that he would not prosecute the war, choosing rather to make friends than enemies of such brave people.

Peace being made with the French, the bishop of Basle interposed his good offices to effect a reconciliation between Zurich and the allied cantons, and the former being induced to resign all pretensions to the estates of Toggenburg, was received back into the confederacy.

The duke of Austria was very much disappointed at the result of the French invasion, and not being inclined to enter into any treaty with the Swiss, he began to look out for a new ally, as Louis of France had deserted him. Louis was now king of France, and was at variance with the famous duke of Burgundy, Charles the Bold, who was almost as powerful a sovereign as himself; therefore, Sigismund thought that he could not do better than secure the alliance of Charles the Bold; and with this view, offered to put him in possession of certain territories bordering on the Swiss cantons, over which the house of Austria still claimed the right of sovereignty. The duke of Burgundy was to pay a sum of money for these provinces, but the duke of Austria was to have the liberty of re-purchasing them, at any time that he might wish to do so.

Among princes, however, it is not unusual to find that "might makes right," and when Charles the Bold found himself fairly in possession of these fine districts, adjoin-

ing his own dominions, it was not likely he would part with them again very readily; and it is only surprising that the duke Sigismund did not foresee such a probability.

The government of these newly-acquired lands was entrusted to a Burgundian knight named Von Hagenbach, who had been raised by the duke from a very humble station, and now used his power in the most oppressive manner. He levied burthensome taxes on the Swiss landowners, whose estates lay within his jurisdiction; made the merchants pay heavy tolls and duties on their goods, and suffered his people to plunder them with impunity, treating those who complained with insult and ridicule.

Louis of France, who hated the duke of Burgundy, and wished to involve him in a war with the Swiss, saw that the cruelty of Hagenbach might be made the means of effecting this object; he therefore offered his friendship to the allied cantons, and promised to supply them with money to pay any expenses they might incur by defending themselves against the oppressive innovations of Charles the Bold and his unworthy favourite, Hagenbach.

The duke of Austria now began to repent of having placed his Swiss dominions in the hands of the Burgundian prince, particularly as he was disappointed in the hopes he had entertained of obtaining the hand of Duke Charles's daughter, Mary of Burgundy, who was an only child, and was the richest heiress in Europe. He therefore desired to re-purchase the provinces, according to agreement; but Charles refused to give them up, and the governor, Hagenbach, went so far as to set up the banner of Burgundy within the territory of Berne, a free

state, over which he had no control, and, moreover, one of the cantons of the confederacy.

The people were highly indignant at this act of aggression; and as it was soon followed by others, the citizens of one of the free towns watched an opportunity of making him prisoner; and he was confined in a dungeon at Brisach. The duke of Austria, who had now joined the king of France and the Swiss, against Charles of Burgundy, assembled a court to try the prisoner, who was condemned to death and beheaded.

This incident is related in Sir Walter Scott's novel of "Anne of Geierstein," a tale that gives great interest to the events of the times of which I am speaking.

The death of Hagenbach was the signal for a war between the duke of Burgundy and the Swiss, which commenced with an act of barbarity that stained the name of the duke with everlasting disgrace. He had laid siege to the little town of Granson, in which the Swiss had placed a garrison of about four hundred and fifty men, who defended the place for ten days, with great bravery; when finding they should be obliged, in the end, to surrender, they accepted a proposal sent them by the Duke, who promised that if they would give up the town without further delay, they should be allowed to march out in safety; whereas, if they continued to defend it, they should all be put to death as soon as it was taken. Relying on the word of the prince, they came out with perfect confidence; when they were all seized, and some of them hanged on the trees, while the rest were thrown into the lake, and drowned.

When the Swiss heard the dreadful tidings of the fate of their countrymen, their rage and horror were

unbounded. Animated with the desire of revenging so base an outrage, they assembled the most powerful force they could muster, and marched towards Granson, where a terrible battle was fought, in which the Burgundians were totally defeated and put to flight. Being closely pursued, they had no opportunity of carrying from their camp any of the treasures, which were immense, as the duke was fond of parade, and always chose to be surrounded with as much pomp and luxury in his tent as in his palace.

The victors found vast sums of money, and jewels of great value; the ducal seal, weighing one pound, of solid gold; and rich silk hangings, embroidered with gold; besides a great number of cannon, standards, and pack horses, the latter being a richer prize, in the eyes of the Swiss, than the splendid jewels, of which they knew not the value, and which they only regarded as pieces of brilliant glass. Some of the largest diamonds that adorn the most splendid crowns of Europe, were sold by the soldiers, after this victory, for two or three florins each.

The duke of Burgundy again rallied his forces for a fresh attack; and as he had lost so many men, and so much treasure, he raised an army by conscription, taking every sixth man throughout his dominions, and obliged his subjects to contribute very largely towards the expenses of a new campaign. He had the bells taken down from all the churches to be made into cannon; and compelled every body to give up such of their kitchen utensils as were made of iron, that they might be cast into balls; and such was the arbitrary nature of his government, that no person dared to retain more than one iron kettle for culinary purposes.

But all these preparations were of no avail, for he was

again defeated at the battle of Lauffen, with more loss than before; and in the following year, being rash enough to make another attempt to subdue the Swiss, he was killed at Nancy, a town of Lorraine, which was defended by the duke René, an ally of the Swiss cantons. The battle of Nancy was fought on the 5th of January, 1477; when the death of Charles the Bold, who was slain in a marsh, while trying to escape from his pursuers, put an end to the contest.

The wars in which they had been engaged, and the wealth thereby acquired, had given the Swiss peasants a taste for military enterprise, and a love of gain, that made them discontented with the pastoral life they had been accustomed to lead, and instead of tending their flocks on the mountains, and dancing with the maidens at eve to the sound of the shepherd's pipe, the young men now cared only for warlike expeditions, and great numbers of them enlisted in the service of Louis the Eleventh, who was rich, and paid them well. Many, also, entered the army of the archduke Maximilian, son of the emperor of Germany, who had married Mary of Burgundy, and was at war with the king of France, for the recovery of part of his wife's inheritance, which had been seized by that monarch; so that sometimes the Swiss were fighting in different armies, against each other.

About this time, too, the youth of the forest cantons crossed the Alps, and entered the states of Milan, to demand satisfaction of the Milanese for having cut down some wood in a valley within the territory of Uri; and such was the terror they inspired, that the duchess of Milan, who was then acting as Regent for her son, John Galeazzo Sforza, was obliged to give up some districts

bordering on the Swiss cantons, which she surrendered, on condition that the government of Uri should send, every year, a wax candle weighing three pounds, to the cathedral of Milan.

The cantons were yet only eight in number; but there were two towns, Friburg and Soleure, now anxious to join the confederation, and they sent proposals to that effect to the general council, which being opposed by some of the cantons, and approved by others, occasioned such violent disputes among them, that a civil war might have been the consequence, had not the timely interference of a pious hermit, called Nicholas de Flue, prevented so sad a catastrophe.

This venerable man had heard, with sorrow, of the discord which threatened to break that union among the cantons which had been so beneficial to the country. He therefore left his solitary abode on the mountains, and made a journey to the town, where the deputies were assembled. They were engaged in loud and angry debate, when the hermit suddenly appeared in the hall, and by his venerable aspect and mild exhortations, made so deep an impression on the assembly, that harmony was restored, and the towns of Friburg and Soleure were received into the alliance.

A few years after this event, Basle and Schaffhausen became members of the league; and lastly, in 1513, the mountainous country of Appenzell completed the thirteen cantons which formed the Helvetic confederacy, until the French revolution. In the meantime, the arch-duke Maximilian had succeeded to the throne of the empire, and the Swiss had been obliged to go to war with him in defence of their liberties, on which he was very desirous of encroaching.

This was called the Swabian war; and although it lasted only eight months, it caused great distress in the border countries where it was carried on; till the emperor, after losing seven battles, made peace, and acknowledged the independence of Switzerland, which, from that time, assumed a higher rank among the states of Europe.

The Swiss were more fond of enlisting in the service of foreign princes, than of engaging in wars on their own account; and as most of the cantons acted independently of each other, it was not uncommon for Swiss troops, serving in different armies, to meet as foes in a field of battle; this was one of the evil consequences of making a trade of warfare. Louis the Twelfth and Francis the First carried on their Italian wars chiefly by the aid of their Swiss mercenary soldiers, that is, soldiers who fought for pay, without having any other interest in the cause they were defending.

Very different from this was a war that was going on about the same time between the duke of Savoy, Charles the Third, and the people of Geneva, a large, populous, and wealthy town, which had existed from the time of the Romans, and had long been a free republic, although nominally subject to the bishops of Geneva, who were usually princes of the house of Savoy. It happened, however, that the bishop then reigning was induced to give up his right of sovereignty to Charles, duke of Savoy, without the consent of the people, who were very much dissatisfied at the change; and finding soon that the duke was likely to be an oppressive ruler, they resolved to release themselves from his authority. With this view, a deputation was sent to the cantons of Berne and Friburg, to request their aid, which was immediately

granted; and a war commenced, which lasted seventeen years, during which, the citizens of Geneva suffered great hardships and much misery; but the love of freedom enabled them to triumph over all difficulties; and, in the end, they succeeded in establishing their independence.

Among the patriots who distinguished themselves in this war, was Francis Bonnivard, the prior of St. Victor, a man of noble mind, undaunted courage, and a firm supporter of the liberties of the Genevese, by which he drew upon himself the especial resentment of the duke of Savoy, by whom he was at length made prisoner, and confined in the dungeons of the castle of Chillon, on the borders of the lake of Geneva. Bonnivard was made captive, not in battle, but in consequence of having fallen into the hands of some robbers, among the Alps, who happened to know him, and in expectation of a reward, gave him up to the duke his enemy, who kept him in confinement for several years. The floor of his dungeon was formed by the rock on which the castle was built; and there are still traces shown of the track worn by the footsteps of the unhappy prisoner, in walking up and down his narrow cell; at least, so travellers are informed, whose curiosity leads them to visit these dungeons. Lord Byron has given an affecting picture of the captivity of Bonnivard, in the beautiful poem entitled "The prisoner of Chillon." Towards the conclusion of the war, the castle was besieged and taken by the Swiss, who liberated the captive, and gave him a high place in the government of the Republic of Geneva.

During the Genevese war of independence, great changes were taking place in every part of Switzerland,

owing to the Reformation which had been begun in Germany, by Martin Luther. The earliest of the Swiss reformers was Ulric Zwingle, curate of the abbey of Einsiedlin, in the canton of Schwytz, a man whose profound learning obtained him so high a degree of celebrity, that he was invited to take upon himself the office of preacher at the cathedral of Zurich, where he began to teach those new principles of religion which Luther had already propagated to a great extent in Germany.

The eloquence of Zwingle produced a speedy revolution throughout the whole canton. The convents were suppressed by order of the senate, the monks and nuns declared freed from their vows, and the buildings converted into schools and hospitals, to be supported by the revenues derived from the lands belonging to them; most of the ceremonies used in the Roman catholic church were abolished; and the people no longer considered themselves as subject to the authority of the pope.

Thus Zurich was the first of the Swiss cantons that adopted the Protestant faith; a change that, unhappily, led to a long series of civil wars, and broke the friendly bond of union that had hitherto united the confederated states; some of which remained firmly attached to the old forms of worship, while others embraced the new. The chief Protestant cantons were Zurich, Berne, Schaffhausen, and Basle; the rest adhered to the church of Rome, except Glaris, Appenzell, and the country of the Grisons, where some of the people only became converts to the new doctrines; so that the population of those states was about equally divided into Catholics and Protestants.

The troubles that arose from these differences of opinion, in an age when each party thought it a duty to

persecute and destroy the other, may readily be imagined; and even to this very day, the peace of Switzerland continues to be disturbed by quarrels on account of religion. In some of the cantons, the magistrates wisely endeavoured to preserve tranquillity by permitting every one to profess that faith which his conscience most approved; and thus in Berne, although the majority of the people were Protestants, yet those who remained faithful to the church of Rome were neither driven from the city, nor deprived of their rights or property; and at Glaris, where there were as many Catholics as Protestants, such excellent regulations were made, that both parties lived together in harmony. But this was not the case in most parts of the country; and Zwingli himself soon fell a sacrifice to civil strife, being killed in a battle between the Protestants of Zurich and the Catholics of some of the other cantons. At Basle, the citizens fought in the streets, and the Protestants, who were the more numerous, expelled the Catholic magistrates and clergy from the city.

The most celebrated of all the Swiss reformers was Calvin, a native of Picardy, who settled at Geneva a few years after the termination of the war of independence, and obtained so much influence in that city, that he was not only looked up to as the head of the church, but took a leading part in the government, and effected a complete change in the manners of the people. The Protestant religion had already been established at Geneva, but the citizens had not given up any of the pleasures to which they had been accustomed, nor was it required that they should do so, until Calvin came amongst them, who, being a man of an austere temper, disapproved of many of the gaieties in which the

Genevese were in the habit of indulging, and therefore directed his chief attention to the reformation of their conduct in every respect. With this view, he forbade all such amusements as singing, dancing, music, or playing at any kind of game, saying that all those pursuits were frivolous, and a sinful waste of time; he abolished all church festivals, among the rest, those of Christmas and Easter, on which occasions it had been usual for people to meet together for the purpose of merry-making; and he introduced a more strict form of worship than had hitherto been observed.

In obedience to the precepts of their stern but highly-respected monitor, the inhabitants of Geneva became sedate in their manners, plain in dress, kept no holidays, and banished all worldly gaieties from their domestic circles.

It happened, about this time, that the celebrated Scottish reformer, John Knox, came to reside at Geneva, where he remained for several years, during which, he studied with profound attention the principles of the reformed religion as taught by Calvin; and when he returned to Scotland, he began the Reformation in that country upon the same system.

Calvin founded the college at Geneva, and revised the laws of that republic. He died in the year 1564; but the influence which he had obtained over the minds of the people lasted for ages, and is not yet entirely obliterated.

Some years after the death of Calvin, the duke of Savoy, successor to him who had been defeated in the war above-mentioned, made an attempt to recover Geneva by the following stratagem. He sent a body of three hundred chosen men, well armed, and provided with implements to break the chains of the draw-bridge,

and also with materials to blow up the gates. These men stole silently in the middle of the night under the walls of the city, which some of them scaled, by means of three ladders which they had brought with them. Having thus mounted the ramparts, they laid themselves down quietly under the trees, two or three only being appointed to watch for a favourable moment to make the attack, when they were to give a signal.

A sentinel, however, fancying that he heard some unusual noise, sent a soldier with a lantern to look about, and the poor man stumbling over some of the enemy, was instantly killed. The alarm was now given, the citizens rushed into the streets, armed with such weapons as they could most readily find, and falling on the assailants, killed a great many of them, and made prisoners of others. The ladders were all destroyed at the beginning of the affray by a cannon ball, so that the troops outside the walls were prevented from getting into the town to assist their companions, and they were prevented from blowing up the gates as they had intended to do, the portcullis having been let down in time to save them. The records of the town make particular mention of a tailor, who performed a number of heroic deeds on that eventful night, and also speak of a woman who killed a soldier with a blow from an iron saucepan. The prisoners, some of them noblemen, were all executed the next day; and the anniversary of the *Escalade*, as this attack is called, has been kept at Geneva as a festival, or day of thanksgiving, ever since.

From the time of the Reformation to the time of the French Revolution, the history of Switzerland is little else than a narrative of religious differences among the people, and the wars arising from them. Sometimes

the small districts revolted against the towns or cantons to which they were subject, because their faith differed from that of their rulers.

A dreadful instance of this kind occurred in the country of the Grisons, a singular and interesting region to the south-east of the forest cantons, where three considerable rivers, the Rhine, the Inn, and the Adda, take their rise. High chains of mountains divide this romantic tract of country into many deep valleys, whose inhabitants are as completely separated from each other^d as if they were so many different nations. Every valley formed a distinct commonwealth, under a president, called the Landamman, and was governed by its own peculiar laws and customs. The inhabitants were shepherds and hunters, who, in summer, roamed about the heights to feed their flocks, or to pursue the chamois; and in winter, returned to their homes in the valleys. This country was called Rhætia by the Romans, who planted several colonies there at the commencement of the Christian era, and it retained that name till the middle of the fifteenth century.

About the time when Rodolf of Hapsburg was high in renown, a multitude of petty chieftains ruled in these sequestered glades, where they built castles, and exercised all kinds of tyranny over the inhabitants, who, at length, rose against their oppressors, and formed several associations for mutual defence, the chief of which was called the Grey League, from the colour of the garments worn by its principal members, and, from that circumstance, the whole population took the name of Grisons. They succeeded in establishing their independence, and from that time, elected their own magistrates, and made their own laws. Once a year, a national

assembly or diet was held at one of the chief towns, to which each commonwealth sent deputies; and there all affairs were discussed that related to the general interests; but every separate community had its own council independent of the great annual meeting.

The inhabitants of each valley kept entirely to themselves, married with each other, and neither removed from the spot where they were born, nor allowed strangers to settle among them. Their houses were built of strong timber, and the roofs secured from the wind and mountain torrents by large heavy stones laid over them. The whole dwelling was warmed by a great oven, which occupied a considerable portion of the principal apartment, and on the top of which, the men usually passed away a great part of the winter in sleep; for they never employed themselves in any mechanical arts, so that they had very little in-door occupation. But it was not so with the women, who were very active in domestic affairs, and manufactured all the clothing worn by the family.

During the war of Swabia, the Grisons formed an alliance with the Swiss cantons, to which they always adhered, and were an important acquisition to Switzerland, as they protected its frontiers on the side of the Tyrol, and other dominions of the house of Austria.

The terrible insurrection to which I have alluded broke out in the Valteline, a fertile vale beyond the Alps, through which lay the direct road between Lombardy and the Austrian states. The Spaniards, who, at this period, were masters of Lombardy, were very desirous of obtaining possession of this fine valley, which belonged to the Grisons, and as the people who inhabited it were nearly all Catholics, while most of the Grison com-

munities had adopted the reformed religion, it was not difficult to stir up a war between them, the Spaniards hoping, by this means, to separate the Valteline from Switzerland, and secure for themselves a ready passage into Austria, by which they might also receive assistance from the emperor in case of need. All means were therefore taken to promote dissensions between the Catholics and Protestants, which involved these hitherto peaceful valleys in a long and cruel warfare.

An aged Catholic priest had been accused of holding a treasonable correspondence with the governor of Milan, and was carried into the Grison country, to be tried for the offence, where he was put to the torture, and died in consequence. He had been much beloved and respected by the people of the Valteline, who were justly indignant at the cruelty with which he had been treated, and resolved to free themselves from the sovereignty of the Grisons, from whom they apprehended more persecution. A conspiracy was formed with that intent, headed by a wealthy native of the Valteline, named Robustelli, who was secretly aided by the duke of Fera, governor of Milan, and joined by a number of Catholic emigrants from the Grison valleys.

The insurrection broke out in July, 1620, when a body of armed men entered Tirano, a large village in the Valteline, where there were a great many Protestant inhabitants, who were all put to death without distinction. The governor, a native of the Grisons, was shot, the houses of the victims were plundered, and the few who escaped from the village were murdered by the neighbouring peasantry. Similar scenes of horror took place in every town and village of the Valteline; but the independence thereby acquired was not lasting, and a

long series of wars followed, in which the Spaniards, Austrians, French, and Swiss, all bore a part.

At last, the Grisons, alarmed for their own safety, became anxious to get rid of foreign troops, and peace was made by different treaties, the Valteline being restored to the Grisons, on condition that they should grant a full amnesty to the people; and refrain, in future, from interfering with their religion.

In the meantime had commenced the great struggle between the Catholics and Protestants of Germany, known by the name of the 'Thirty Years' war. The Swiss did not wish to take any part in this contest, which is looked upon as one among the greatest historical events of the seventeenth century; but it was not easy for them to avoid doing so, as their territories were constantly encroached upon, sometimes by the French, at others by the Swedes, and then again by the Germans; besides which, there were a great many unprincipled adventurers in the armies of all those countries, who went into the interior of Switzerland, for the very purpose of raising disturbances among the peasantry, and inciting them to rebellion. In short, the whole of the seventeenth century was a period of warfare, attended with incredible misery, and as it led to no important result, its melancholy details have now but little interest.

When Louis the Fourteenth, by his cruel persecution of his Protestant subjects, drove them to seek refuge in other countries, many of them fled to Switzerland, and settled in various parts of the country, where they were supported by subscriptions, raised among the charitable people of different towns, until they were sufficiently established to be able to maintain themselves by their several trades.

In the early part of the eighteenth century, a very serious quarrel arose between the abbot of St. Gall and the people of Toggenburg, of whom mention has been made in a former part of this history. The count of Toggenburg, it may be remembered, left no direct heir to succeed to his estates, which occasioned a civil war between Zurich and the forest cantons. In the end, the people of Toggenburg became burghers of Schwytz, as before related; but there was a relative of the deceased count, called the lord of Raron, who was put in possession of the estates, but not of the feudal privileges exercised by his predecessor, the vassals having all been made free, and received as fellow citizens by the people of Schwytz and Glaris.

Some time afterwards, the lord of Raron sold his right of sovereignty over these lands to the abbot of St. Gall, whose successors had continued in possession of them ever since, and had ruled with mildness, until the beginning of the eighteenth century, when the abbot Leodegar, being displeased at the progress of the Reformation in the district of Toggenburg, passed a decree, by which Protestants were excluded from all places of trust; and not content with this undue exertion of authority, he attempted to re-establish the ancient feudal government; appointed all the magistrates himself, and compelled the peasants to work on the public roads, and perform many services which he had no right to require from a free people. The Protestant cantons interfered, and troops were sent from Zurich to the frontiers of Toggenburg; while the abbot placed garrisons in several of his castles, and prepared for war.

The men of Toggenburg, being thus assured of assistance, armed themselves, and expelled the abbot's soldiers

from the castles, on which he became so much alarmed, that he fled with all the monks of St. Gall to Lindau, on the opposite side of the lake of Constance. The whole country was soon engaged in this quarrel; the Protestants taking the part of the people of Toggenburg, the Catholics that of the abbot. Many battles were fought in this unhappy war, and many castles laid in ruins; when, after two years of strife and bloodshed, peace was restored in 1712; but as the abbot still refused to give up his unreasonable pretensions, he was not suffered to return to his abbey, and died in exile. His successor acted with more prudence, and the tranquillity of the country was no more disturbed by open warfare, although the difference of religion had unfortunately loosened the bonds of political union among the Swiss cantons, and destroyed their friendship and confidence towards each other.

The next historical event of importance was the French Revolution; but before I relate the occurrences of that calamitous period, I will endeavour to give some idea of the different modes of government that prevailed in Switzerland, with a sketch of the country and its inhabitants as they existed before the French invasion.

THE GOVERNMENT, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS OF THE SWISS,

IN THE SEVENTEENTH AND EIGHTEENTH CENTURIES.

THE forms of government among the Swiss were of various kinds, scarcely any two cantons being governed alike; but they may be generally divided into three classes, aristocracies, municipalities, and democracies.

The aristocracies were those states where the sovereignty was in the hands of certain noble families, who held themselves superior to the rest of the people, and considered that they were entitled, by their rank, to rule over those of a lower grade. The principal aristocracies were those of Berne, Friburg, Lucerne, and Soleure.

Berne, which is said to have been the best governed canton in all Switzerland, was founded by one of the dukes of Zahringen, in the twelfth century. Its inhabitants at first consisted of noblemen, who were the proprietors of the lands and houses, and they and their families and servants composed the population, till by degrees, many artificers, traders, and farmers, anxious to gain the protection of this strong city, either obtained permission to reside within its walls, or to be regarded as its vassals.

The tradesmen of the city were originally divided into the four guilds of butchers, bakers, smiths, and tanners,

these being the principal trades in the early stages of society; and each of these companies had their banner and their public hall. The bearers of these banners, who were called bannerets, were always persons of consequence, who were made free of the companies, although they were not in trade, and they always had seats in the senate, as the representatives of their respective companies.

As the city grew larger and more populous, there were other trades which formed themselves into guilds, and had certain privileges granted to them, but none were ever of so much importance as the first four, nor had any other its hall and banner. There were two councils to conduct the government, one consisting of two hundred members, all chosen from among the highest families, and not from among the citizens generally; and the other, called the senate, consisting of twenty-seven individuals, who were not eligible to be elected until they had been members of the great council for ten years.

The senators were chosen for life, and had fixed salaries; therefore, whenever a vacancy occurred there were sure to be many candidates, and the mode of election was this: Twenty-six balls, three of them being gilt, were put into a box, and each senator drew out one. Those who happened to draw the gilt balls were qualified to vote for a new member; and in the same manner seven electors were chosen from the great council, making in all, ten electors.

This was a very fair way, for as the candidates did not know who would be the electors, they could not make interest with them beforehand. The election also was conducted with equal impartiality, each elector dropping into a box, a ball, inscribed with the name of

the person for whom he chose to give his vote, and he who had the most balls in the box, was the successful candidate. Thus a person was not obliged to let it be known for whom he had voted, so that he could give his ball to the individual whom he thought most fit to fill the office, without offending the rest. This is called voting by ballot, and is a system that many wish to see adopted in England, in the election of members of parliament.

The senate sat to hear causes every day throughout the year, except Sundays; but the great council only met twice a week. The vacancies in the latter were filled up every ten years, and on those occasions all the senators, and some few officers of state, had the right of voting. This was always a time of great bustle and excitement, every candidate being engaged, for many weeks beforehand, in making all the interest possible among the electors; and it is said that more marriages took place at this time than at any other, as it was very natural for a gentleman to give his vote to the husband of his daughter, or his sister.

The territory of Berne, which was the most extensive of the Swiss cantons, was divided into districts, each under the dominion of a governor, called the bailiff, who was appointed for six years, and was regarded almost as a sovereign prince in his own district.

The bailiffs were always chosen from the senate, and they seldom exercised their authority in an oppressive manner, as they were liable to be displaced for any act of injustice, and the peasants never hesitated to complain, if they felt themselves aggrieved.

It was a common saying in Switzerland, that no condition was better than that of a Bernese farmer; and the

word Bauer, which signifies peasant, was not an unenviable title in this canton, as it was very generally applied to a respectable class of men who cultivated their own land, and lived in easy circumstances. They had very few taxes to pay, as the government raised sufficient money for all the public expenses, by other means, as by the revenues of the abbey lands, which had been appropriated by the state at the Reformation; the fines imposed for various offences, a duty on wine, and the monopoly of salt and gunpowder.

This monopoly sometimes caused great discontent, as both these commodities were sold at a very high price by the government agents, and no one dared to buy them of any body else. But if they had been allowed to purchase their salt and gunpowder at a cheaper rate, they must have contributed towards the maintenance of the state in some other way; therefore, they had in reality but little cause of complaint, more particularly as the money collected by this means was employed for the general benefit, in repairing roads and bridges, paying the magistrates, building asylums for the poor and aged, and affording assistance to those who suffered by avalanches, fires, or bad harvests.

An avalanche is an immense mass of snow and ice formed on the slope of a mountain, which becoming too heavy to sustain itself there, rushes down with tremendous force, destroying every thing in its way, and sometimes burying a whole village in its fall. There are many valleys in Switzerland entirely uninhabited, in consequence of being subject to visitations of this nature.

The Bernese government did not give much encouragement to manufactures, therefore, the greater part of

the country people were cattle farmers, the lands being more fit for grazing cattle than for growing corn.

In speaking of the government of Berne, I must not omit to mention a singular institution, called the Exterior State; which was a kind of mimic government, conducted with all the formalities of the real one, by the young men of high families, who formed among themselves a great council and a senate, electing their members by ballot, as I have described.

They assembled in a large building, where they held debates on political subjects, made laws, and went through all the forms of a real parliament. Their bailiwicks were all the ruined castles in the country, that of Hapsburg being the principal one; and the same ceremonies were observed in electing the governors of these dilapidated walls and towers, as if the person chosen was really to be invested with a very important office. This might truly be called playing at government; but the object was to accustom young men to the business of the state, that they might be the better able to conduct it when they arrived at an age to become members of the council.

The military force of the canton consisted of all the male population, between the ages of sixteen and sixty, who were obliged to provide their own equipments, and none were allowed to marry unless they were able to produce a musket and uniform. They were reviewed once a year, and occasionally exercised.

The other aristocracies were governed upon the same principles as that of Berne, but were inferior both in opulence and extent.

The municipalities were those states where the persons who composed the senate were elected from amongst the

whole body of the citizens, without distinction; so that the shopkeepers, provided they were free of the city, had as much right to sit in the council, as the greatest men in the canton. The chief municipalities were those of Zurich, Basle, and Schaffhausen.

The burghers of Zurich were divided into thirteen classes, one of them being called Noble, because it was composed of those who did not exercise any trade. Each of these classes sent an equal number of deputies to the council, except the nobles, who were privileged to send twice as many as the others. There was a fresh election every year, but the old members were usually re-chosen, unless they had misconducted themselves, when they were liable to be displaced. The vacancies that were occasioned by deaths, were filled up from the class of burghers, to which the deceased had belonged. The burgomaster was elected annually, like our Lord Mayor.

The constitution of Zurich, it will be remembered, was established by Rodolf Braun, in the fourteenth century, when all the nobles were exiled from the city. The people of Zurich were more active in commercial and manufacturing pursuits than those of Berne; but their government was more arbitrary; and as the rulers were for the most part tradespeople, they made laws to restrict the country people from exercising certain trades, which they wished to keep entirely to themselves.

Some insurrections had taken place in consequence of these unjust and unwise laws, and the country people had at last obtained the right of working at a few particular trades, establishing manufactures of linen and cotton in the villages, planting vines on their lands, and electing their own magistrates; but they could not hold any office in the state however wealthy they might be,

nor had they the liberty of sending deputies to the parliament.

There was more corn grown in this canton than in any other part of Switzerland, and the farmers also made wine and cherry brandy, and had besides, excellent pasture land for their cattle. The citizens carried on an extensive trade in silks, muslins, linen, and thread, of which there were many manufactories in the town; and in order to derive all the advantage possible from them, the senators were narrow-minded enough to make a law, that no foreign artisans should be allowed to settle in any part of the canton.

The citizens of Zurich were extremely simple in their manners and mode of living. The ladies were generally occupied at home with their domestic affairs and the education of their children. They were not fond of visiting, so that there were no such gay parties at Zurich as there were at Berne, where almost every evening there was a ball at some house in the town.

The gentlemen of Zurich were very fond of smoking, and used to assemble in small parties to enjoy the fragrant fumes of their handsome pipes of embossed silver, tipped with horn; the usual accompaniments being wine and cheese; but these pleasures were not exactly in accordance with the taste of the ladies, who preferred little select parties of their own, to which gentlemen were seldom admitted.

The country districts under the municipal governments were managed by bailiffs, as they were in Berne.

I have now to speak of the democracies, which were those cantons where the government was not conducted by any particular class of persons, but by the people at large, who assembled once a year, or oftener if occasion

required, in the open field, to elect their magistrates and make their laws; every one above the age of sixteen being entitled to vote.

This simple form of government was in use among the ancient Germans, and the Gothic nations in general during the early ages, when all freemen were upon an equality; and it was still preserved in the three forest cantons, and also in Zug, Glaris, and Appenzell. Such a constitution could scarcely exist in a more civilised state of society, but where every man is a shepherd or a cultivator; where habits, manners, and dress, pass unaltered from one generation to another; where the valleys are separated from each other, great part of the year, by impassable barriers of snow and ice; where the inhabitants live in total ignorance of what is passing in the world; to such a country, and such a people, a democratic form of government seems well adapted.

In all these pastoral districts the people had an air of independence, not often met with among a peasant population, and very different from the confidence that springs from vulgarity. It was not unusual for the landlord of an inn to take his flagon of wine, and seat himself at table with his guests, perfectly unconscious that such familiarity might be deemed unbecoming his station.

The inns and cottages in Switzerland were built in a very substantial manner, of wood, with a staircase on the outside, and a roof, projecting beyond the walls, generally made very strong with timber and heavy flat stones. A thatched roof was very rarely seen, as it was necessary, in so mountainous a country, to provide a better security against sudden storms, and more especially the terrific avalanches, that form so peculiar a fea-

ture in the scenery of Switzerland. The cottages were furnished in the most simple manner possible, but were always clean and comfortable.

The national costume of the Swiss peasantry, was a coarse brown cloth jacket, without sleeves, very full trowsers, made of ticken, tied just below the knee; worsted stockings, and clumsy shoes or half boots. They all had long beards, and the young men wore large straw hats; but the old generally went bareheaded, their venerable white locks hanging down over their shoulders, giving them a most patriarchal appearance. In some parts of the country they wore long coats of grey or brown woollen, without sleeves, in the fashion of the fourteenth century.

The dress of the female peasants was very simple and pretty, their short full petticoats of black or blue, with a broad red border, displaying their coloured stockings, and remarkably neat shoes with smart buckles on the instep. The tight boddice was of some dark colour, laced with red or blue, and the white linen sleeves were tied up with ribbons of the same colour. They wore on their heads a hat, or rather a flat round mat, made of willow, or some other light material, painted yellow, and tied down with a ribbon, the hair being plaited behind in two long tresses, reaching sometimes nearly down to the heels.

Even in the large towns the greatest simplicity prevailed with regard to dress and furniture, the latter being generally of a very primitive fashion, consisting chiefly of straight, high backed wooden chairs, and carved tables, all highly polished by the industrious hands of the inmates. The use of carriages in the towns was prohibited by the laws.

The chief manufactures of Switzerland were those of silk, linen, muslin, and calico, thread, watches, and cutlery. Basle was famous for its silks, St. Gall for embroidered muslins, and cotton factories flourished in many of the Protestant districts. Clocks and watches were made at Geneva, and in the valley of Locle, near Neufchatel, where the men were all watch-makers, and the women lace-weavers, living in easy circumstances by the produce of their labour, which found a sale in America and the East Indies.

There is one thing relative to the Swiss, which cannot fail to strike every one who reads much about them, and that is, that we are never told of the poverty and wretchedness of the lower classes; no traveller speaks of crowds of beggars or ragged half-starved children; but on the contrary, instances are frequently mentioned of peasants having felt offended at being offered money in return for some act of civility.

Many fairs were held in Switzerland, both in towns and country villages; and in some places, gymnastic games were celebrated once or twice in the year, when prizes were given for feats of strength and skill. These games were instituted, according to tradition, in the thirteenth century, by Burkard, the baron of Unspunnen, a powerful lord, who possessed vast dominions, and was the inveterate enemy of Berthold the last duke of Zahringen. The castle of Unspunnen stood on the edge of a lake, between Berne and Unterwalden, and the duke of Zahringen built, on the opposite side of the lake, the castle of Thun, to be a check upon his foe.

It happened, that Rodolf of Wedenschwyl, the bravest and most accomplished knight of Berthold's court, saw, at a tournament, the baron of Unspunnen's only daughter

whose beauty made a deep impression on his heart; but as he knew that her father would never consent to bestow her hand on one who was in the service of duke Berthold, he contrived to obtain admission to the castle, in the absence of its lord, and carried off the fair Ida to Berne, where they were married.

The enraged baron, believing that the duke of Zähringen had aided young Rodolf in this bold enterprise, declared war against him, and for several years the vassals of these two nobles were constantly in arms against each other; till at length Berthold, being anxious to put an end to the calamities occasioned by the war, resolved to seek a personal interview with his enemy, and taking with him little Walter, son of Ida and Rodolf, he repaired to the castle of Unspunnen.

The baron, who was then grown old, felt gratified by the confidence with which Berthold had placed himself in his power, and tenderly embracing his grandson, said, "Let this be hereafter a day of rejoicing amongst us."

I need scarcely add, that Ida returned to her home, accompanied by her husband, and the young Walter was acknowledged heir of Unspunnen; while the noble duke who had brought about this happy reconciliation, was repaid by the friendship and gratitude of his late foe.

Such is the interesting tradition belonging to the castle of Unspunnen, the ruins of which are still to be seen; and the anniversary of the day, which Burkard desired might be one of rejoicing, was long afterwards celebrated with gymnastic games, and other sports, in the valleys of Unterwalden.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

1789 TO 1814.

THE civil wars of the seventeenth century, in Switzerland, had been succeeded by a long interval of repose, and a new generation of people had grown up in peace and happiness among their native mountains, unmolested by foreign powers, and caring little about what was passing in the world beyond, when the breaking out of the French revolution caused a melancholy alteration in the state of affairs, as we shall presently find.

The Swiss, who were perfectly satisfied with their condition, and desired no change, were anxious to be left at peace; and certainly the French had no right to interfere with them; but where violent people have both the will and the power, they do not always think about the right; and this was the case with the French revolutionists, who wanted to establish what they called liberty all over Europe.

For some years the Swiss succeeded in keeping free from the troubles of the Revolution, by avoiding any act that might give offence to the new rulers of France, or afford them the slightest pretext for invading the country; but some very dreadful scenes took place at Geneva, which at that time was scarcely considered as a part of Switzerland, being a state in itself, neither de-

pendent on, nor belonging to, any other. At the very commencement of the riots in Paris, the lower classes at Geneva, incited by the French, placed the tri-coloured cockade in their hats, and paraded the streets in parties, singing the revolutionary songs, and uttering threats against the existing government. The senate adopted measures to keep them in check, and for some time, nothing very serious occurred; but the spirit of insurrection was not subdued, and in 1794, during that period of wickedness in France, termed the Reign of Terror, a violent insurrection broke out at Geneva, among the common people, aided by a body of French soldiers who had been admitted into the town. The greatest confusion ensued. Some hundreds of the most respectable of the citizens were arrested, and thrown into prison, to be tried by a court instituted in imitation of the horrible tribunal which was then sitting at Paris, and condemning numbers of innocent victims to the guillotine every day.

The self-constituted judges of Geneva sentenced to death many of the most eminent and virtuous citizens, and confiscated their property; thus rendering their wives and families not only widows and orphans, but beggars also; and thus making them suffer, not for any actual crime, but merely because they were opposed to that system of equality by which the revolutionists foolishly thought to raise the lowest and most ignorant of the people to a level with those whose education and property naturally placed them in a more elevated sphere. The reign of terror, at Geneva, lasted above a year; during which, several hundreds of the higher classes had either been put to death, or banished; and such heavy contributions

had been levied on all who possessed any wealth, that they were reduced to comparative poverty.

At length, the death of the tyrant Robespierre, and the changes that took place at Paris, in consequence, put an end to those cruelties. The exiles were recalled, the revolutionary tribunal was dissolved, and the government re-established, as it had existed before the revolution; but none of those who had taken a part in the atrocities committed during that year of terror, were punished for their crimes, so great was the fear of offending the French government.

In the meantime, the revolutionary principles were spreading in many parts of Switzerland, giving rise to disturbances in several of the cantons among the peasantry, who became dissatisfied with the system by which they were governed. This feeling of discontent was, no doubt, promoted by the French, who wanted some plausible excuse for invading Switzerland; and desired nothing better than to be invited by the mass of the people to take up their cause against their rulers.

Already had the French troops occupied the Pays de Vaud, and separated that province from the canton of Berne, to which it had long been subject; they had also taken possession of some territories on the Bernese frontiers, and excited a revolt at Basle, where the lower orders rose against the higher class of burghers, forced the magistrates to resign their authority, and set fire to the castles of the bailiffs in the country districts.

At length, the French directory openly demanded that the senators of Berne should abdicate, to make room for a new constitution; and on their refusal, hostilities were commenced, and a direct attack was made on the city. It is generally believed that this unjusti-

fiable invasion of a country which had taken no part in the affairs of France, and had given no provocation whatever to the invaders, was only a pretext to plunder the public treasury of Berne, which was known to contain a vast sum of money.

The Swiss militia from the country districts, joined by the citizens, under the command of the brave General D'Erlach, made great efforts to prevent the enemy from reaching the town, but without success; and after a severe conflict, they were dispersed, and the city surrendered to the French General Brune, on condition that the lives and property of private individuals should be respected.

Thus fell the ancient republic of Berne, about the same time that those of Venice and Genoa were overthrown by Napoleon Bonaparte. For several days after the occupation of Berne by the French troops, they were allowed to plunder the surrounding country, and the late happy peasantry were subjected to miseries of every kind. Crowds of fugitives fled in despair to the mountains; and General D'Erlach himself took the same route, intending to collect his men together in the Oberland, a country inaccessible to the French cavalry, where a store of arms had been provided. Unfortunately, however, he was met by a party of peasants, who had just heard the news of the capture of Berne, accompanied by a false report that it had been given up to the French by the treachery of the general. No sooner, therefore, did they recognise the supposed traitor, than they rushed upon him with their bayonets and battle-axes, and left him dead on the road with his aid-de-camp, the sole companion of his flight.

Another distinguished fugitive was the Avoyer, or

chief of the senate, an old man, upwards of seventy, who had fought bravely, notwithstanding his great age. After the battle was over, he sat for a long while on the trunk of a tree, thinking what he should do, for he would not go back into the town, to see it in possession of strangers. At length he resolved to follow D'Erlach, and set out, attended by one faithful soldier; but soon feeling exhausted by the fatigues he had undergone, he fell asleep by the way-side, wrapped up in his great coat; and while he was thus reposing, the peasants who had murdered the general, passed by without perceiving him, a circumstance that most probably saved his life, as these misguided men were equally exasperated against the officers of the army, and the rulers of the state. The venerable Avoyer pursued his way, and reached the forest cantons in safety.

After the fall of Berne, all the other great towns were speedily occupied by the French, who plundered their treasuries, emptied the public storehouses of corn and wine, lived at free quarters on the inhabitants, and impoverished the most wealthy citizens by the imposition of heavy taxes.

A decree was now issued, declaring that the Swiss confederation was at an end, and that henceforth the whole country should be united under one government, to be called the Helvetic Republic. It was to be divided into twenty-two departments, each to send four senators and eight councillors to form a general assembly at Aarau, in Argovia; and this council was to legislate for all Switzerland.

The Swiss, seeing their country filled with foreign soldiers, had no alternative but to submit, and the Helvetic republic was proclaimed; but the forest cantons,

depending on the strength of their position among the mountains, refused to send deputies to the central government, as the new assembly was called; saying that they were quite contented as they were, and wished for no change; and that there was nothing in their government that could be displeasing to the French, since they had always lived in that state of equality which it was the object of the revolution to establish. "We are a nation of shepherds," they continued, "we have preserved the simplicity of our ancestors for ages; we are not rich enough to pay the expenses of this new government, and why should it be forced upon us!"

But this reasoning was of no avail. They were called rebels; and an army was led into their country by General Schauenberg, to enforce submission. The brave mountaineers of Schwytz assembled to oppose the invaders, having at their head a valiant and accomplished officer, named Aloys Reding, who had served with distinction in Spain, and had only lately returned to his native country.

On the first of May, 1798, the people of Schwytz were employed in preparing for their defence. Fires were lighted on all the heights, and the women of the canton spent the whole night in dragging cannon over the rocks and to the edges of precipices, some of them working with an infant on one arm. For two days, the fighting was continued, and four times the French were repulsed with great loss; but the loss on the part of the Swiss was also very great, and could not be easily repaired for the population of that little canton could but ill afford to replace those who had fallen; so that whatever temporary successes their troops might gain, they must gradually be exterminated. This consideration

induced Aloys Reding to accept the terms of peace offered by General Schauenberg, which were, that the people of Schwytz should send deputies to the council at Aarau, but that no soldiers should be quartered in the canton, nor any taxes levied on the inhabitants, who were also to retain possession of their arms, a privilege that had not been granted in any other part of Switzerland.

The rest of the forest cantons, seeing the hopelessness of resistance, agreed to the terms made by Reding, except the small valley of Nidwalden, in the canton of Unterwalden, where the people resolutely refused to join the Helvetic republic, and prepared to defend their liberty with their lives, although they could not muster above two thousand men.

The fate of this little district is among the most melancholy details of the war. The inhabitants defended the passages with incredible valour, for several days, when, after numbers of them had fallen, the enemy burst into the valley, determined to give no quarter. Old men, priests, and women, were barbarously put to the sword, on that dreadful day; six hundred cottages were in flames at once; and the few who survived, only saved their lives by hiding themselves in the mountains, where they must have perished for want, during the ensuing winter, if they had not received timely assistance from the other cantons, as well as from England and Germany, for all the cattle had been driven away from the pastures by the French.

A few hours had thus sufficed to convert a happy, populous, and fertile country into an uninhabited desert. Some poor children, who were found wandering about the fields, were collected together by a gentleman named

Pestalozzi, a native of Zurich, and the inventor of a new system for educating the poor. This benevolent individual took the entire charge of the destitute orphans of Unterwalden, about eighty in number. The canton of Berne granted him the use of a chateau for his adopted family, and his establishment was afterwards considerably increased under the auspices of the Helvetic government.

After this attack on Unterwalden, the forest cantons were deprived of their arms, notwithstanding the treaty that had been made with them, so that they were left without the means of defence. The Grisons, who had refused to join the Helvetic republic, being apprehensive of a French invasion, solicited the aid of the emperor of Austria, who sent a body of troops into their country to help them in case of need.

Switzerland now became a scene of warfare between the Austrians and French, in which the Swiss also were involved; and as far as regarded them, it might be termed a civil war, as some took one side and some the other; while to add to the distresses of the country, a Russian army joined the Austrians on the banks of the lake of Zurich, and took up their quarters in the city. General Massena, who was, at this time, commander of the French army in Switzerland, gave battle to the allies outside the walls of Zurich, and having defeated them, again became master of the town.

This victory is rendered memorable by the death of Lavater, the celebrated physiognomist, who was a native of Zurich, where he was much beloved and respected. He had merely stepped out of his house to remonstrate with some French soldiers, who were behaving in a very insulting manner to the passengers, when one of them

fired at him, and the wound caused his death a twelve-month afterwards. It is but just to say that the French general ordered strict search to be made for the ruffian, that he might be punished as he deserved; but he was not discovered; and the generous Lavater, who alone knew where he might be found, forbore to give the information.

In 1801, Bonaparte became First Consul of France. He wished to have Switzerland entirely under his control, but he was also anxious to conciliate the people, and teach them to regard him as their friend and benefactor; and, with this view, he determined to restore the government of that country very nearly to its former state. Ten Swiss deputies were sent to Paris to confer with him on the subject, Aloys Reding, the hero of the forest cantons, being also at Paris, and a new constitution was given to the Swiss, known by the name of the Act of Mediation. The republic was to be composed of nineteen cantons, each to have its own separate senate as before; but a general Diet was to be held in one of the principal cities, over which the Landamman, or chief magistrate of that district, was to preside.

One point of difference between this and the former government was, that there were to be no subject districts, that is, no small cantons dependent on larger ones, in the manner that the Pays de Vaud had been under the dominion of Berne, and Toggenburg under that of the abbot of St. Gall. Every subject district was to be united with its canton, and to form a part of it, that all the people might have equal rights and privileges. This constitution was adopted in 1803; and each canton was to furnish a certain number of troops for the French armies; but they were not raised by

conscription, as in France and Germany, as such a mode would not have suited a people who set so high a value on their liberty, therefore, bounties were given to those who offered to enlist; and thus a sufficient number was usually raised.

I ought to have mentioned that, about the time of the invasion of the forest cantons, Geneva was again invaded, and forcibly annexed to the French republic.

The ten years that followed the Act of Mediation was a season of repose, during which, the Swiss made considerable progress in the arts and sciences, and adopted plans for the education of the peasantry, which had hitherto been sadly neglected. National schools were opened in most of the country districts, new manufactures were established in the valleys of the Alps, St. Gall, Appenzell, Glaris, and other cantons; and literary societies were formed in large towns.

Amid the many and complicated wars that disturbed the rest of Europe while Bonaparte occupied the throne of France, the Swiss alone were permitted to remain at peace, taking no part in the troubles of the times, except so far as furnishing the troops according to agreement, for the service of the French emperor, who, however, frequently complained that the numbers were not complete; yet no force was ever used to compel a Swiss to enter the army against his will.

At length, the fortunes of Bonaparte began to decline; and after his unsuccessful expedition to Moscow, the emperors of Russia and Austria, being united with other powers against him, found it expedient to send their armies through Switzerland, therefore gave the Swiss to understand that they could no longer be considered as under the protection of Bonaparte, and that Bona-

parte's act of mediation must be declared void. No opposition was made to the march of the troops, and they went through the country in a very orderly manner, paying for every thing they took, and doing no injury to the people or their property.

The constitution that had been established by the act of mediation being now at an end, it became necessary to form a new government, and as the cantons could not agree among themselves on this point, the allied sovereigns lent their aid, and by their well-timed interference, in all probability, prevented a civil war.

After the dethronement of Bonaparte, when all the princes of Europe assembled at Vienna to settle how the many kingdoms and states over which he had ruled should be disposed of, they arranged that Switzerland should be a free republic, or rather, an assemblage of republics, not subject to any other power, but all united by a federal compact for their mutual security and the maintenance of their liberty. The three provinces of Geneva, the Valais, and Neufchatel, which had been dismembered and joined to France by Bonaparte, were restored, making in all twenty-two cantons, each of them being independent of the rest. Once a year, a general Diet was to assemble at Zurich, Berne, or Lucerne, consisting of deputies from each of the cantons, to regulate such affairs as related to the whole confederation; and also to settle any disputes that might arise between two or more of the cantons, as the present laws forbid them from going to war with each other, as they used to do in former times. As to the particular governments of the different cantons, they were almost the same as they were before the revolution.

The democracies held their Landgemeinds, or national

assemblies of the people; the aristocracies were composed chiefly of the higher class of citizens, or gentry, for there is no titled nobility in Switzerland; while the most wealthy of the burghers generally obtained the greatest share of influence in the municipalities. The new constitution indeed admitted the right of the country people to send members to the councils of their respective cantons, but the citizens have not been very willing to let them exercise that privilege, and much discontent has been thereby occasioned.

It may be proper to mention that Neufchatel had, long before the revolution, been under the dominion of the king of Prussia, who, in 1806, gave it up to Bonaparte; but having received it back at the peace, the Prussian monarch formed it into a separate state, which, in 1822, was united to the Swiss confederacy. The town is famous for the manufacture of watches, cutlery, chintzes, and other cotton stuffs; the country around produces wine, fruits, and flax, and has good pastures for cattle; but very little corn is grown there. Though this province has been joined to Switzerland, the king of Prussia still retains the title of prince of Neufchatel.

RECENT EVENTS,

AND

PRESENT STATE OF SWITZERLAND.

1815 TO 1841.

THE fifteen years that followed the general peace were passed by the Swiss in comparative tranquillity, till, in the year 1830, signs of insurrection began to appear in several of the cantons among the peasantry, who considered themselves injured, because they were not admitted to an equal degree of authority in the government with the citizens. In some places these discontents led to very serious consequences, particularly in the canton of Basle, where the peasants assaulted the town, and actually fought a battle with the inhabitants, in which many lives were lost. The whole country, more or less, was disturbed by similar tumults, all arising from the same cause, namely, that some classes of the people enjoyed privileges which others did not, and several changes were made in the political institutions of most of the cantons, before order was restored.

Scarcely, however, were the Swiss at peace again among themselves, when they became involved in disputes with their neighbours, under the following circumstances. The revolutions that had taken place in Poland, Ger-

many, Italy, and the kingdom of Sardinia, had caused a great number of refugees to seek an asylum in Switzerland, where they were treated with the utmost kindness and liberality, subscriptions being made in every canton for their support.

In 1834, some hundreds of these unfortunate individuals, formed a conspiracy against the Sardinian government, and invaded Savoy, in the hope of exciting an insurrection in that country. The attempt was unsuccessful, and they were driven back with great loss; but their violent conduct drew upon the Swiss, as their protectors, the displeasure of the king of Sardinia, as well as that of the sovereigns of Prussia and Austria, who demanded that all the refugees should be expelled from Switzerland.

The Swiss were themselves very angry at being drawn into a quarrel with these powerful states, by the people to whom they had given refuge and protection; yet they were too generous to abandon them altogether, and after much discussion, it was agreed that they should in future dismiss from their territories all foreigners detected in belonging to secret societies, or attempting to disturb the peace of other countries; and as to those who were implicated in the late conspiracy, the king of France granted them passports to pass through his dominions on their way to England, America, or any other country to which they might choose to go.

Some time after this, a dispute arose between the king of France and the Swiss, relative to prince Louis Bonaparte, who is now a state prisoner in France; but was then residing in the canton of Thurgau, where he possessed an estate, and was invested with all the rights of a citizen.

This young man had been sent to America about two years before, for attempting to raise a rebellion at Strasburg, but he had lately returned, and settled quietly in Switzerland, where, perhaps, he might have been living comfortably now, if he had not been interfered with. The French king, however, did not think it safe that he should reside so near France, and therefore desired that he should be banished from Thurgau; but the people of that state did not choose to expel one of their own citizens, neither would the general council of the confederation agree to so unjust and arbitrary a measure.

This council is called the Vorort, and it sits during the whole year, in that canton where the general diet for that year is held; and it has the direction of all affairs that concern the country at large. Thus each of the principal cantons in turn takes the head of the confederation, and directs all the rest.

The Swiss having absolutely refused to banish Louis Bonaparte, the king of France prepared to go to war with them, and the cities of Switzerland were hastily put in a state of defence. All the shops at Geneva were shut up, and the shopkeepers and artisans converted into soldiers, and every thing wore a most gloomy aspect, when the voluntary departure of the prince, who came to England, happily terminated the quarrel, without bloodshed.

It may appear strange that the Swiss should be ready to engage in a ruinous warfare with a superior state, on account of a single individual in whom they had no particular interest; but their object was to show that they would not tamely submit to the dictation of foreign powers; but were ready to assert their independence on all occasions, and to defend it with the sword, if necessary.

This event happened in 1838; and about the same time a civil war, upon a very small scale, broke out in the little canton of Schwytz, which I shall relate, as it may serve to illustrate the still primitive habits of the inhabitants, who consist of two principal classes, called Klauemanner, and Hornmanner, the former being goatherds, the latter proprietors of cattle.

Now the cattle owners, being the more wealthy class, hold themselves superior to the goatherds, and jealousies are thereby occasioned, which sometimes break out into open hostilities. The quarrel to which I have alluded, was about the mountain pastures, where the klauemanner had as much right to feed their goats, as the hornmanner had to graze their cattle; nevertheless, as the latter were the most powerful party, they took all the best pastures to themselves.

The goatherds having vainly remonstrated, resorted to force, but they were beaten and driven off the field. The Vorort then interfered, threatening to send a military force among them, if they could not settle their differences; on which peace was very soon restored.

The people of this canton rear abundance of sheep and cattle, but they have very little corn. Potatoes and cheese are the chief articles of food, and cider is their common beverage. Their houses are all built of wood, but they are large and commodious. They have as many as six market towns, besides a great number of villages and hamlets.

The Landamman, or chief magistrate, is generally a wealthy farmer, as simple and unpretending in his manners and appearance as any other member of the community.

During the last year, 1841, there have been serious

disturbances in Switzerland, on account of religion. It will be remembered, that some of the cantons profess the Catholic, others the Protestant, faith; and that in several of them the population is divided between the two. This is the case in Argau; but the Protestants being the more numerous, send more members to the council than the Catholics, who feel themselves aggrieved in consequence.

A violent insurrection broke out in the early part of last year, which was not suppressed without the loss of many lives; for the government was obliged to assemble the troops of the canton, who fought for three days with the insurgents, when the latter were at length compelled to lay down their arms.

It appears that the monks took a very active part in the contest, which has led to the suppression of all the monasteries in Argau, the revenues of which are employed to establish schools in all the Catholic parishes of that canton.

The habits and manners of the Swiss have lost none of that plainness and simplicity by which they were distinguished two centuries ago. In the large towns, the inhabitants still wear the national costume, keep no carriages, dine at noon, and sup at six, as the people of England were wont to do in the olden time. French fashions and late hours have not yet found their way even to Berne, which is the principal town in all Switzerland, where the ladies still wear the short full petticoat and tight black velvet boddice, adorned with silver chains, that used to be worn by their grandmothers; and the large flat gipsy hat, with bunches of flowers and knots of ribbon on the top of it; and this is also the dress of the superior sort of peasantry, that is, of the farmers'

wives and daughters. The young men wear full plaited frock coats, with collars turned back, and a large straw hat, from beneath which their long hair hangs down over their shoulders.

Berne is a very handsome city, the houses being all built of stone, and the principal streets having a stately arcade on each side, and a clear stream of water running through the middle. But it is described, on the whole, as being a very dull town, and not much visited by strangers, for whom indeed it presents but few attractions, being unenlivened with the bustle either of business or pleasure.

The country near Berne is very woody, much of it being covered with fine old oaks, beeches, and pines. The road leading to the gates of the city, is bordered on each side with magnificent lime trees, and there are seats here and there for the accommodation of foot passengers, and fountains at regular distances.

The Bernese farmers have recovered all their former prosperity, and live in the same easy, independent manner as before the revolution. They are extremely social in their habits, and throughout the whole canton it is the custom to make merry on a Saturday night, when the neighbours assemble, in turns, at each other's houses, where the young people amuse themselves with dancing and singing, while the elder folks enjoy their pipes, cider, cherry-brandy, and gingerbread cakes.

Berne is decidedly an agricultural, Zurich a manufacturing, district. Almost all the country people in the latter canton are weavers and cotton spinners, most of whom work at home, and are the proprietors of a cottage and large piece of ground, where they grow maize, potatoes, and many other vegetables; and many of them

keep a few sheep and a cow. There are, however, several extensive manufactories in various parts of the canton, as well as in the town, which have been much improved, of late years, by the introduction of machinery; and a great quantity of the goods manufactured there are sent to Italy. Zurich is entirely a place of business. There are no public amusements whatever, and the laws are so strict with respect to frivolous gaieties, that dancing, even in private society, is prohibited.

There are particular days of the year when people invite their relations to dine; but the chief visiting consists in evening parties, when the ladies usually drink tea, and chat, in one room, while the gentlemen smoke in another; and to such an extent is this reserve carried between the two sexes, that they do not make it a practice to converse together, even if they meet in the same apartment.

The people of Zurich are, in general, well educated. Their chief ambition is to make a fortune in business, and to build a country house on the banks of the lake.

The roads and inns in Switzerland are, in general, very good, and inn-keeping is a profitable occupation, as numbers of persons, from all parts of Europe, are induced, in the summer season, to make the tour of this beautiful country, which, in point of scenery, is unrivalled. The most wild and romantic scenes are those which have generally the greatest attractions for strangers, who are accustomed to the beauties of cultivation in other countries; but may seek in vain elsewhere for the sublimity and grandeur which is to be found in Switzerland.

Among the peculiar features that distinguish Swiss

scenery from that of any other country, are the glaciers, which resemble seas of ice, and were perhaps formed in a more remote age than we have any knowledge of. They are produced by deep and narrow valleys among the rocky mountains, in which the snow has gradually accumulated and frozen from time immemorial, till immense icy plains have been formed, the surfaces of which have the appearance of the rough waves of a stormy sea, if we could imagine them to be suddenly frozen. The glaciers are very numerous, and some of them extend for several miles. No traveller ventures on them without a guide, as there are many clefts in the ice, which are extremely dangerous, being often slightly covered by the snow, so as to be concealed from sight.

In the year 1787, an innkeeper of Grindelwald, in crossing a glacier with a flock of sheep from some distant pasture, fell into one of the openings in the ice, to the depth of more than sixty feet. His arm was broken, yet he preserved his presence of mind, and hearing the noise of water, he groped about in the dark, till he found a channel which the stream had formed under the ice, and crawling through this narrow passage for some distance, he came to an outlet at the lowest extremity of the glacier; and thus, almost by a miracle, escaped being frozen to death, a calamity that has befallen many an unfortunate traveller.

Even the guides themselves have sometimes met with a similar accident, from not being aware of some new rent in the glacier. When this occurs, the ice bursts asunder with a noise like a loud clap of thunder, and sometimes the whole glacier moves, as though agitated by an earthquake.

The nature of this singular country exposes its inha-

bitants to frequent and terrible calamities. The melting of the ice and snow at the extremities of a glacier, sometimes causes the whole mass of surface to move with a force that nothing can resist. It will bend down large trees to the earth, and pass over them; throw forward tremendous heaps of stones, and fragments of rocks, with such violence, that they are scattered over the country, often doing much mischief in their fall.

Sometimes the valleys are inundated by torrents issuing from beneath the glaciers, occasioned also by the dissolving of the snows; an extraordinary instance of which occurred as lately as the year 1817, when the vale of Bagne, in the canton of the Valais, was overwhelmed by a sudden rush of waters, which swept through the country for the space of eighteen leagues, carrying away every thing in its course.

The narrow valley of Bagne, bounded on each side by high mountains, is inhabited by a simple industrious race of shepherds and herdsmen, who dwelt in such harmony with each other, that the oldest man then living could not remember a single crime having been committed of sufficient magnitude to be punished by law.

Near the upper end of this happy valley was the edge of a glacier, forming one of a long series extending forty leagues from Mont Blanc to the sources of the Rhone. From this glacier, in the summer time, when the snows dissolved, descended a torrent, which formed a stream that found its way into the river; but in winter, when all was hard and frozen, there was no torrent, and the channel of the stream was dry.

In the spring of 1817, it was observed that the stream was much shallower than it ought to be at that season, and some persons were deputed to examine into the

cause; when, on ascending to the source of the torrent, they found that a vast quantity of ice had fallen from one of the mountains, and blocked up the valley, so as to leave no outlet for the waters, which had, in consequence, accumulated behind this frozen dyke, and formed there a large lake, which, of course, was rising higher and higher every day.

This discovery caused the greatest alarm, as it was evident that if the barrier of ice gave way, the whole lake would instantly overflow the valleys below; and such was the general consternation, that travellers were afraid to cross the road of the Simplon, and thus the communication with Italy was interrupted; therefore the Austrian government sent an engineer to see what could be done to prevent the threatened danger. The engineer determined upon cutting a passage through the dyke for the gradual exit of the great body of water that had been formed behind it, and fifty men were employed, night and day, in the perilous work, at the risk of being crushed to death by the masses of ice that were constantly falling upon them.

The passage, however, was completed in about three weeks, and the waters began to flow through it, so that it was hoped a very few days might suffice to drain the lake; but the dyke began to give way, and the engineer sent to warn the inhabitants of the valleys, most of whom left their homes, and went high up into the mountains with their sheep and cattle.

At last, a fearful explosion announced the fall of the dyke, and down rushed the waters with a deafening roar into the valleys, with such force, that the trees, houses, windmills, barns, and erections of every kind, were swept away in an instant, and their ruins carried forward by

the torrent with mountains of earth and stones, from which arose a column of thick vapour, like the smoke of a volcano. Nine persons only lost their lives at Bagne; but at Martigny, a town about four leagues distant, between thirty and forty people, who had been imprudent enough to delay making their escape to the mountains, where most of the inhabitants had taken refuge, were lost.

At length, after running a course of eighteen leagues, in six hours and a-half, the raging torrent found its way into the lake of Geneva, leaving behind a melancholy scene of desolation.

I shall now describe an accident of a different nature, for the purpose of shewing to what a variety of calamities the people of a mountainous country are subject. •

Near lake Zug stands a lofty mountain, called the Rossberg, part of which gave way, in the year 1806, and in its fall buried five or six villages, with four hundred and fifty seven of their inhabitants, only seventeen of whom were dug out alive. It was on the second of September, after a very rainy summer, that several fresh crevices were observed in the sides of the mountain, and a farmer who was at work about two thirds of the way up, heard a cracking noise from within, on which he hastily descended to alarm the inhabitants of a little village in the neighbourhood, where a peasant had just been thrown into a similar state of consternation, on finding, as he was digging up potatoes, that the earth moved of itself under his spade. Suddenly all the springs of water ceased to flow; the large pine trees waved to and fro, although there was no wind to agitate

them, and the birds flew screaming away, as if they knew that some fearful catastrophe was at hand.

These signs continued all day till about five o'clock, when an immense portion of the mountain gave way, and fell into the valley of Lowertz, burying three entire villages, with a great part of two others, and more than four hundred human beings. It was not the summit of the mountain, or any large projecting piece of it that fell, but an entire layer of the whole surface, one hundred feet in thickness, and a league in length, which slid down into the valley with such tremendous force and rapidity, that the face of the country around, to a considerable distance, was hidden under heaps of ruins, and its whole appearance so completely changed, that it would have been impossible to recognise any part of it.

One portion of the mass fell into the lake of Lowertz, and filled up nearly a quarter of it, forcing the water over a village at the farther extremity of the lake, and inundating two pretty islands, one of which was the residence of two hermits, who happened, fortunately, to be absent at the time, and the other had long been celebrated for the ruins of an ancient castle, formerly belonging to the counts of Hapsburg.

About ten years before the fall of the Rossberg, the district of Whiggis, formerly a province subject to Lucerne, was overwhelmed by a stream of mud, pouring down from the Righi, an isolated mountain in the canton of Schwytz.

The inhabitants of Whiggis were awakened, early in the morning, by a strange noise, and soon perceived a torrent of liquid clay, apparently a mile wide, coming down upon them, but so slowly, that they had time to escape with most of their moveable property. This

stream continued to flow during a whole fortnight, till it had overtopped all the houses, and covered a great part of the country with a deep bed of clay, which the industry of the people, in course of time, rendered productive.

Geologists explain these phenomena, by stating that the mountains, both of the Rossberg and the Righi, are formed of layers of stones of different kinds, separated, or rather cemented together by layers of clay, which, if it happen to become softened by water, no longer acts as a cement, and the layers of stone being loosened, naturally slide down, as in the case of the Rossberg; but the same cause produced a different effect with regard to the Righi, where the clay being impregnated and softened with water, was pressed out by the weight of the rocky strata above it, and poured itself down the mountain, as already described, while the upper layer of the rock sank down and rested upon that which was underneath the clay, instead of gliding away from it as the surface of the Rossberg had done.

Such are the perils to which the Swiss in all the mountainous parts of the country are constantly exposed by the wonderful operations of nature; but these are not much more terrific than the dangers to which they expose themselves in pursuit of game among the Alps. The chamois hunter is subjected to severe hardships, such as hunger and thirst, sleeping on the damp ground, climbing up the steep precipices, with a heavy gun slung across his shoulder, and encumbered with his mountain stick, his ammunition, and provisions, and with the game he kills. The chamois is an animal peculiar to the Alps, somewhat resembling the antelope, and as timid and active as that beautiful creature.

The flesh is eaten, and the skin is sold to be made into gloves and shoes. The facility with which the chamois climb the steepest rocks, and spring from one narrow ledge to another, is truly wonderful, and renders it very difficult to take them, the hunter being frequently obliged to venture where a false step, or a falling stone, would throw him down a precipice to certain death. The chamois hunters are said to be remarkable for their taciturnity and romantic turn of mind, which may be easily accounted for, by considering that they lead a life of continual danger and solitude.

The poor chamois too have their full share of dangers to encounter, being frequently killed by the fall either of avalanches, or of pieces of rock, and not unfrequently by unsuccessful leaps. They are sometimes attacked by the lammergeyer, a gigantic bird of such extraordinary dimensions, that its wings, when spread, often measure as much as sixteen feet. It is, I believe, the largest bird in the world, except the American condor, and, usually haunts the wildest and most inaccessible parts of the mountains.

Among the Alps may be found, here and there, a chalet, which is the summer abode of the shepherds, who tend their flocks and herds on the mountains. The chalet of an Alpine shepherd is like an American log house of the rudest construction. The roof is made of shingles, and projects so far beyond the sides, as to form a covered way or wide piazza all round the dwelling, called the melkgang, under which the cattle and sheep are sheltered. The interior is a complete dairy, consisting of two large rooms, one where they keep the milk, and the other where they make the cheese, and these are furnished with numerous bright and clean

wooden bowls, ladles, cups, pails, presses, and all the necessary utensils for milking, and the manufacture of cheese, which is an important branch of trade among the Swiss, whose cheeses are sent all over Europe, those of Gruyère being the most highly esteemed. Gruyère is a valley between Friburg and Basle, where the pasture is remarkably fine, and the cows of a peculiar sort; but most of the cheese made in Switzerland is sent to market under that name.

The sleeping place of the shepherds is a wooden gallery, hung over the melkgang, and reached by a ladder, where they repose on a little straw. While the men are engaged in milking the cows, they commonly sing the celebrated national air of the Ranz de Vaches. It was this air which the French generals, during the war in Italy, would not suffer the bands to play, because it reminded the Swiss soldiers of their homes.

Arts and sciences have as yet made but little progress in Switzerland as compared with the rest of Europe; but there are several projects in contemplation which, if carried into effect, will inevitably cause a speedy revolution in the state of society in that hitherto almost isolated country. The chief of these is the construction of rail-roads, which, by increasing the intercourse of the Swiss with other nations, cannot fail to enlighten and improve them. Steam boats have already been introduced on some of the principal lakes, but the means of land travelling are at present few and inconvenient; consequently, the intercourse between Switzerland and the neighbouring states is very limited.

It is therefore proposed to facilitate the communication with Italy by a railroad from Basle to Milan, which shall pass near Zurich to the town of Coire, in the Grisons,

and by means of a tunnel through the Alps, proceed by the Lake of Como to Milan. The tunnel is to be made at a pass called the Splugen, in the country of the Grisons, which is now the entrance into Italy by a road over the mountain, and is the regular route by which goods are conveyed to and from Zurich. An Italian engineer is now in treaty with the governments of St. Gall and the Grisons relative to this vast undertaking, which, it is calculated, will occupy about thirty years.

In the meantime, the line of railway will be made in Switzerland from Basle to Coire, and in Italy, from Como to Milan. Bonaparte's famous carriage road across the Simplon, a mountain between the canton of the Valais and the Sardinian states, a work of which he was justly proud, will certainly be eclipsed by a passage through the Alps for a train of steam carriages.

Another line is also spoken of from Milan to Venice, to be executed under the auspices of the emperor of Austria, who appears to have formed very extensive plans for connecting all parts of his empire with the capital, having already issued a decree for commencing three great lines from Vienna; one to Dresden, another to the frontiers of Bavaria, and a third to Trieste, a large town on the Adriatic, opposite Venice. When these roads are all completed, it will be possible to travel from London to Venice in four days, going by the Belgian railways to Strasburg, from which city there is already a line opened to Basle; so that a journey thus far into Switzerland is now but a trifling affair as regards time and distance.

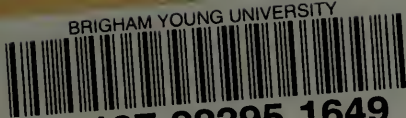
Should the present plans be carried into effect, a part of the journey from Basle to the Splugen would have to be performed by steam boats on the lakes, which, to

those who travel for pleasure, could not fail to afford a delightful variety; and when we think of the many thousands of persons of different countries who are likely to avail themselves of so easy and pleasant a mode of visiting the most attractive scenes of Europe; the great increase of trade that must naturally result from a constant and speedy mode of conveyance, and the numbers of Swiss gentry who will take a trip now and then to the gay city of Venice, we cannot but foresee a complete revolution in the aspect of the country, and the character and manners of its inhabitants.

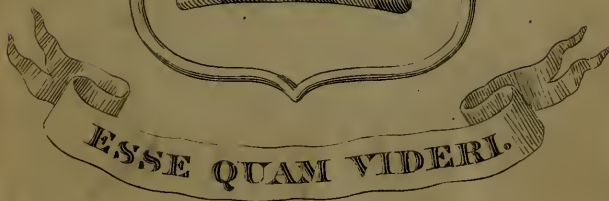
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Theodore L. Harrison.

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